The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 13, 1893.

The Week.

SOMETHING over a million dollars in gold has been imported in driblets during the past week, picked up in three or four different markets, wherever, it may be supposed, the personal bargains of American exporters with their foreign customers enabled them to take advantage of the recent very low rates for foreign exchange. But a heavy specie movement from Great Britain has been withheld, the Bank of England using every exertion to prevent such an outflow. Through the machinery available for such a purpose, the Bank of England has accumulated in its own vaults practically all the gold in London's market, and has pursued precisely the policy adopted one year ago by our own Treasury Department—the refusal to deliver in exchange for drafts gold in any form but sovereigns. The necessity of reassaying and remelting gold in this form before its use is possible in a foreign country has virtually made its acquisition on exchange impossible. It will, however, be remembered that the similar policy, when adopted by our Treasury officials, checked only for a few days the export movement. Were the actual balance of trade in merchandise, securities, and credits now in our favor, the Bank of England would be equally powerless. As a matter of fact, the exchange of merchandise, though at present apparently against us, is prospectively turning in our favor. English importers of our wheat, who lately bought heavily of grain for July and September delivery, sold their exchange in advance against such purchases, and our future export trade is therefore to precisely that extent figuring in the market balance of exchange. But it is very noticeable still that the foreign trade in our securities and the free transfer of foreign credits is slow to begin again, and the motive for the hesitation is perfectly obvious. It may be that foreign confidence will be restored in anticipation of the Sherman Law's repeal; it is certain that it will return when the law has been publicly cancelled from our statute-books. But it is quite as certain that a failure to deal thoroughly and honestly with that demoralizing law would turn the tide of foreign capital once more and immediately against us.

The Atlanta (Ga.) Clearing-house has adopted by a unanimous vote resolutions which declare in strong terms that the Sherman Act should be repealed, and that no silver dollar should be coined at our mints which is not as good as any other dollar. The resolutions also call for the repeal of the tax on State bank-notes, but there is nothing like unanimity of opinion in favor of this policy throughout the South. Indeed, the strongest newspaper opponent of it in the whole country is that thoroughgoing Democratic journal, the Richmond *Dispatch*, which declares that, on a proposition to repeal the tax on the circulating notes of State banks and return to the banking system which obtained in this country before the civil war, "there may be expected from the voters a swelling chorus of 'Noes' when they get an opportunity to make known their wishes in the premises."

It is already evident that the Colorado mine-owners have plunged far too deep in gloom and have made predictions too black and sweeping. Their fellow-citizens have become apprehensive of the effect on the State's credit of their ostentatious proclamations of ruin, and have begun to warn the country, especially that part of the country which has investments in Colorado, that these tragic miners must not be taken too seriously. It was early announced that Colorado's ruin was only of a sort which would still allow her to pay all her debts in good money, and now that good news is followed up by the cheering information that "the actual effect of closing the silver mines" would affect the State's prosperity only in a "trifling" way. This is amply borne out by the statistics of the production and wealth of Colorado, by which it appears how far agriculture and manufactures surpass mining. If the miners are not able to frighten even their neighbors in any way except to inspire a fear that their affected melancholy will injure the reputation and credit of the State, and if the Idaho and Montana mine-owners announce, as they do, that their mines will go right on turning out silver as before, we think that the Colorado men might as well quit their private theatricals at once and go to work again.

In view of the fact that our own Clearing house banks issue their weekly statement with the required reserve figured at 25 per cent. of the deposits, it is a matter of interest at the present time to know how small a percentage of deposits is deemed necessary by the London joint-stock banks. The London and Westminster at last reports had but 17.4 per cent. of cash reserve, yet this was the highest on the list. The London Joint Stock Bank had but 12.4 per cent., and the National Provincial but 13.3 per cent. This latter bank has 221 branches and agencies throughout Great Britain as compared with the 16 branches of the Westminster, all situated within the metropolitan area. So, too, the London and County, with 173 branches, carries but 10.7 per cent. in cash. Well may the London *Statist* call these reserves "quite inadequate," especially in the cases of those banks whose sub-agencies are scattered all over the country. Either the London banks are taking grave chances on monetary quiet throughout Great Britain and Europe (for of those stated percentages of reserve the greater part is on deposit in the Bank of England, whose own reserve is 50 per cent. of its liabilities), or else our New York percentage is more than ample for safety. If we may judge by banking practice in London, our own banks are well protected, even if their reserve should run down to the legal limit of 25 per cent.

The determination of the Pension Bureau to scrutinize the list of pensioners under the Dependent Pension Act of 1890, and to erase from it all names not lawfully there, is simply an attempt to enforce the law and make it honorable. Under the terms of the act itself, it is the duty of the Secretary of the Interior to make rules and regulations for establishing "due proof" of the fact that applicants are "suffering from a mental or physical disability of a permanent character, not the result of their own vicious habits, which incapacitates them from the performance of manual labor." Secretary Smith has become satisfied that, in the case of about a thousand names on the list, such due proof has not been had, and his order is that no pension shall be paid to these persons until they prove their right to one under the terms of the law. This step is necessary in the interest of justice, and it is also necessary in the interest of economy. The total expenditures of the Government during the past fiscal year on what may be called the war-power, including pensions and the army and navy, were upwards of $239,000,000—far more than half of the entire cost of running the Government, and nearly double the military expenditures of either France or Germany with their immense standing armies and groaning taxpayers. The *Financial Chronicle*, commenting in its last issue upon this condition of things, asks if it is not time to call a halt. There can be no doubt that the country will heartily approve of all efforts to cut the annual pension bill down to the lowest limits consistent with the enforcement of law.

The decline of party spirit is illustrated in the small importance attached to the fact that the death of Justice Blatchford of the United States Supreme Court furnishes the opportunity for the appointment of a Democrat to that bench. It is really a matter of no consequence whether Judge Blatchford's successor is a Republican or a Democrat, for there has not

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

been in many years a division in the court along party lines. Although a Republican, the late Justice joined in such decisions as that annulling the Civil-Rights Act for unconstitutionality, and sustaining the State-rights side in the Virginia debt controversy. So far as Republican party policy during the period of his service was concerned, the record of the court would have been no different if a Democrat had sat in his place.

The News Bureau of the Navy Department has been lying very low about the case of Commander Higginson. It was in a state of great activity when he was on the high seas, on his way to Greytown, where an order detaching him from his command was awaiting him, but immediately after his return to this country every leaking spigot of it ceased to drip. The oozing began again on Monday, however, and "an officer who says that he is acquainted with the facts" shows what a pickle the Department is in. It "does not now hold that Commander Higginson evaded his orders." That is to say, he was not a coward and a scoundrel for refusing to go to sea without coal and for reporting the bad condition of the *Atlanta*. That ship, in fact, had no sooner reached this country than she was ordered into dry dock for those very repairs which Commander Higginson insubordinately and unpatriotically said she needed. The only fault now to be found with him is that, in his hurry, he was guilty of a breach of etiquette in writing direct to Commodore Melville for the needed boiler tubes instead of sending his request via the Secretary. The Department seems now to have intimated to him that if he would apologize for this bit of broken red tape, his command would be restored to him "as a favor." We should have expected that such a sneaking officer as he was represented to be would have been glad to crawl back to his ship in that way, but the audacious man actually demands his restoration "as a matter of justice," inasmuch as the Department practically admits that he was removed without cause. We shall watch the news attachment of the Navy with great interest to see if it will adopt the discipline of a burlesque court, and cashier a worthy officer for having made the horrible mistake of calling upon the First Lord of the Bedchamber, instead of the First Gentleman in Waiting, to hand the King a handkerchief.

When Mr. James Bryce was in the British Foreign Office, he maintained that it was "the clear and constant duty of the Government, which holds in its hands the threads of a vast organization stretching over the world, to do all that it legitimately can to further the interests of our commerce." Acting upon this view, he prepared a memorandum showing in what manner British trade might be assisted by her Majesty's diplomatic and consular officers. He discovered, by means of careful investigation and wide correspondence with boards of trade, that the information regarding commercial matters transmitted from abroad by these officers was not of the right kind, that it came too late, and that it was not published in an accessible and attractive form. His correspondents bore witness to "the great assiduity displayed by the consular agents of the United States in sending home frequent and detailed reports of the movement of trade," and recommended that "the agents of the British Foreign Office take example from their American confrères." Mr. Bayard, as Secretary of State, printed the memorandum and correspondence, and, in laying the pamphlet before our consuls, reminded them of their duty to work with increased diligence, inasmuch as the reforms about to be instituted in Great Britain were suggested by the series of reports begun under Mr. Evarts in 1880. That the reports of our consuls have been free from the defects mentioned by Mr. Bryce no one will maintain, but it is not too much to say that, compared with similar publications of other governments, they are very creditable. In the November number of last year appeared a report by our consul at Piedras Negras on "Mexican Trade and How to Secure It," which, says *Bradstreet's* of July 1, "has received the unusual distinction of being utilized by trade and daily papers of the United States as an editorial article, or in other ways, at intervals of a few weeks from the time of its first appearance in the State Department publication to this time." Among other papers quoting from it or referring to it approvingly is the London *Ironmonger*.

After a silence of more than two years, a silence by which even the editor of the *Sun* has been perplexed and troubled, Mr. William H. Hurlbert has published the reasons why he put himself beyond the reach of a treaty of extradition when "wanted" in England to answer a charge of perjury, and why he keeps beyond said reach, and why he does not even now disclose his whereabouts. The reason why he departed suddenly from the United States was that under the new treaty of extradition with Great Britain it was a matter of doubt whether our courts could refuse a warrant of extradition on any grounds whatever. "In pursuance of this belief," says the *Sun*, "Mr. Hurlbert was advised by counsel that, even if overwhelming proof could be produced that he was in New York when he was said to have committed an extraditable offence in London, the testimony could not be accepted by a Federal court as ground for refusing to recognize the warrant." The *Sun* refrains from committing itself to the view taken by Hurlbert's counsel—an exercise of caution which may be due to an examination of the treaty, the sixth article of which says:

"The extradition of fugitives under the provisions of this convention . . . shall be carried out . . . in conformity with the laws regulating extradition for the time being in force in the surrendering States."

That is to say, the new treaty has introduced no new rule whatever touching the sufficiency of evidence to warrant the writ of extradition. The caution shown by the *Sun* in not committing itself to the view of Hurlbert's counsel is no less sagacious than the caution of Hurlbert himself in not taking any risks on the wording of the new treaty.

Oklahoma is trying hard to outbid all of its neighbors in the matter of granting easy and quick divorce. An attorney at Kingfisher, in that Territory, has issued a circular which points out that the statutes of Oklahoma specify no fewer than "ten separate and distinct causes, for any one or more of which a divorce may be obtained," including that all-embracing term, "gross neglect of duty"; that the probate court of each county, "which is always in session," has jurisdiction in actions for divorce, "which affords litigants an opportunity to obtain relief very speedily and without having to await the slow process of the District Court"; that the statute requires only three months' residence in the Territory; and, finally, that "persons coming to Oklahoma will find the city of Kingfisher, with its 4,000 inhabitants and all modern improvements, a very pleasant place to live in." Apparently Indiana, Chicago, and South Dakota are all to be outdone in the divorce line by Oklahoma.

The capital of Kansas is now suffering the natural results of the shameless application of the spoils system by which the new Democratic Postmaster summarily removed the old force of letter-carriers—men who had served faithfully and efficiently for years—in order to make room for a lot of Democrats who were afraid that they could not pass an examination under the Civil-Service Law, which is about to be applied to the office. The new carriers are always late in delivering mail, and letters are constantly delivered to wrong addresses. There is a universal agreement that never in the history of Topeka has there been a time when the mails were so shiftlessly delivered, and letters of indignant protest are daily sent to Washington. The First Assistant Postmaster-General has acknowledged the receipt of a petition of citizens, affidavits, etc., against the removal of the carriers, and states that the matter will be investigated. The investigation ought to be a thorough one, and it should be followed by the prompt removal of the new Postmaster, on the ground that any man who will open his administration of a public office by utterly demoralizing it is unfit for the place.

It is shocking to have such revelations made about a recent Secretary of the Treasury as the Ohio press is printing regarding "Charley" Foster. It appears

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

that the assets of the bank which he controlled are only $70,286, while the liabilities are $296,089, and that this enormous excess of liabilities is largely due to the fact that Mr. Foster's account was overdrawn in the great sum of $136,000! The Ohio newspapers are making proper comment upon this disgraceful state of things, and partisanship does not prevent so good a Republican journal as the Cincinnati *Times-Star* from telling the exact truth about it. It points out that Mr. Foster drew out the funds deposited day after day by his neighbors, and that they are now deprived of their money through his act in "gobbling it by overdrawing his account. If," it adds, "any one had broken into the bank and stolen the money or had obtained it by forging the names of depositors, he would have been pronounced guilty of a flagrant crime. To the depositors the effect of Mr. Foster's overdrafts is precisely the same as if some one who didn't enjoy the privilege of overdrawing his account had abstracted the amount." The *Times-Star* holds that there was absolutely no excuse for Mr. Foster's course, and that his prominence and political fame should not shield him from censure.

The experiment of opening the World's Fair on Sundays has disappointed both its advocates and its opponents. The management expected a great increase in revenue from the attendance of large crowds, while the Sabbatarians feared irreparable harm to the morals of the multitudes who would rush in to their destruction if they were given the chance. In point of fact, the attendance on Sundays has been smaller than on Saturdays almost from the first, and the number of visitors on that day diminishes every week. Two causes produce this result. People from a distance, who are spending a number of days at the Fair, are as a rule so weary by Saturday night that they want absolute rest on Sunday. The poorer classes of Chicago, from whom the largest number of Sunday visitors was expected, are so much dissatisfied at having to pay the full price of fifty cents for only about half of the show that comparatively few of them attend, and the same objection prevents the organizing of large Sunday excursions from the surrounding country. It now seems obvious that a mistake was made in not fixing the rate of admission on Sunday at twenty-five cents, and advertising that visitors must not expect much beyond a sight of the buildings and grounds. This is the policy which was pursued on Sundays until the formal opening of the Exposition, and under it there were large crowds of well-satisfied people every Sunday.

Prof. Henry Drummond's lectures on evolution at Chautauqua are the clearest index yet seen in this country of the silent but sweeping change wrought in the religious world by the teachings of science in regard to the origin of man. Mr. Beecher's sermons on evolution, in the last years of his life, were not so significant, because he was an exceptional man and was preaching to an exceptional audience, accustomed to startling novelties. Nor has the acceptance of a modified evolution by Christian teachers and preachers here and there given any very sure indication of the great revolution quietly going on. But Prof. Drummond expounding a pretty thorough-going evolution at Chautauqua is a striking phenomenon. He is by no means a commonplace man, but Chautauqua is a paradise of commonplace people. Those who flock to the lectures there come mostly from parts of the country removed from intellectual stir, and are typical representatives of the church people to whom, a generation or less ago, evolution was synonymous with atheism. Moreover, the purveyors of instruction at Chautauqua have always been careful to make it of a kind at which the most sensitive prejudice need not revolt. When, therefore, Chautauqua managers provide lectures in defence of evolution, and Chautauqua audiences gather to hear them with much pious edification and strengthening in their faith, it is a sign of the times which no observer can neglect. The very protest against the management and the innovating lecturer, drawn up by a handful of those who have not lost their old dread of godless science, only emphasizes the profound nature of the change that has taken place.

The Bellamyites may take heart again. A communistic settlement is to be seriously undertaken, on a somewhat important scale, on a site already famous in the Jesuit annals of Paraguay and in the pages of Muratori. It is not a little curious that the movement should have started from Australia, the title of the community being The New Australian Coöperative Settlement Association. The declaration of principles contains the familiar complaint against the tyranny of society: "Whereas, so long as one depends upon another for leave to work, and so long as the selfishness induced by the uncertainty of living prevents mankind from seeing that it is best for all to insure one another against all possibility of social degradation," etc., etc. For all these evils it is proposed to establish a settlement, with common ownership of land and equal division of expenses and profits, "without regard to sex, age, office, or physical or mental capacity." Absolute equality of the sexes is one of the fundamental principles. The community is to maintain the children, under the guardianship of their respective parents. No religion is officially recognized, and "the individuality of every member in thought, religion, speech, and leisure, and in all matters whatsoever whereby the individuality of others is not affected, is to be held inviolable." In effect the plan of organization involves the maintenance of a State within a State. To this arrangement the Paraguayan Government has consented. The community is responsible to the Government as an individual, and is bound to obey its laws, but the members are directly responsible to the directors of the Association, who are to be elected annually. A grant of land, comprising 100 square leagues, equal to 450,000 acres, has been obtained near Villa Rica, on the Rio Tibicuari, 110 miles from Asunción. As an earnest of good faith the Association has deposited with the Paraguayan Government a substantial forfeit, agreeing to establish 400 families within two years from January 7, 1893, and to plant a colony of 800 families within four years from that date. There are no promoters seeking profit out of the enterprise; it is divorced from politics; the members are plain workingmen and women, who are thoroughly sincere, and who are setting out to improve their own condition—not to further socialistic reforms or to prove any original theories of government.

It is not often that words of wisdom are heard from the mouths of the French Socialists, but a manifesto published at Roubaix by the "National Council of the Labor Party" contains, with much folly, some truths that it would be greatly for the advantage of France to heed. The manifesto was drawn out by the charges of lack of patriotism made against the Socialists because of their "internationalism." But this, they reply, is neither the abasement nor the sacrifice of Fatherland. The evolution of "Fatherlands" has been a necessary step in the evolution of humanity, but it is not the final step, and when the time for the unity of mankind has arrived, it is not patriotism but bigotry to insist upon preferring the claims of particular nations to those of humanity. France is, therefore, not the end of all social organization, but, as it is an important factor, the French Socialists desire a country "great and strong, capable of defending its republic against the united monarchies, and capable of protecting its future artisans, as in '89, against an eventual coalition of capitalist Europe." But while they desire this, and because they desire it as patriots, they oppose war, "which, fortunate or unfortunate, could end only in unexampled disasters, considering the millions of men who compose modern armies and the machinery of modern warfare." Especially do they not desire a war which, whatever its issue, "would only play the game of Asiatic barbarism, represented by Russian Czarism, against the exhausted West." It is reasonable to believe that the declared hostility to war upon the part of such numbers of citizens as are now identified with Socialism in both France and Germany may sensibly increase the reluctance of military leaders to bring on hostilities, and that if the present terrible burden of military preparation could be diminished, the numbers of the Socialists would be correspondingly depleted.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

WHAT SHALL WE DO WITH IT?

THE producers of silver are, perhaps, those most vitally interested in the disposition of the great fund of that metal now in the Treasury of the United States. They were aware when the act for the purchase of pig-silver was passed, that the demand for silver as currency was more than satisfied, and that the act provided for an accumulation that would presently assume large proportions. They must have known that the existence of this vast fund would be regarded by financiers in general, and dealers in silver in particular, very much as the dwellers in a narrow valley may regard the existence of a reservoir above them which is unprovided with any waste-way and is swelling from constant rains. Whether they acted upon the maxim, *Après nous le déluge*, or not, we do not know, but if they had been sagacious, they would have sold their product "short." They may have done so; but at all events they have now to sell in a market rendered extremely precarious by their own schemes.

The discharge of workmen in the silver mines, which must probably take place to some extent, is certainly deplorable; but there is no particular reason why the owners of silver mines should receive any more sympathy than the farmers, who have seen the price of wheat fall almost one-half within the past few years, or the makers of pig-iron, many of whom can remember selling for $40 and $50 a ton what they now have to dispose of for less than $15. The case of the people of the United States is somewhat different. In the legislative lottery they have drawn an elephant of prodigious size; and though this monster does not exactly have to be fed, it yet requires housing and watching at considerable cost, and is evidently decreasing in value. In fact, any attempt to dispose of it would break the market, so that what value it has depends principally upon no attempt being made to realize it. This value would scarcely meet the requirements of the economic definition of value in exchange, for the exchange cannot be made; nor does it seem in accordance with truth to say that it has value in use.

Is there, then, nothing whatever to be done with our pile of silver but to keep it indefinitely? Doubtless this would be the simplest thing to do, but it is repugnant to the utilitarian genius of our people. Several ideas have occurred to us as perhaps solving the problem, and we venture in a tentative way to lay them before our readers. In the first place, there seems much to be said in favor of what might be called the Egyptian solution, viz., the construction of an enormous silver pyramid at Washington in plain sight of Congress. This, it might be hoped, would operate to remind that body that we have had some financial experience in the past, and would be a monument as lasting as brass to the financial follies of the last twenty years. Upon the sides of this pyramid might be engraved the Bland Act and the Sherman Act, and any other appropriate sentiments; and if Mr. Bland will favor this idea, we should be willing to have his effigy in silver, of any size that he prefers, placed upon the apex of the pyramid. It would seem, however, more consistent with the Egyptian origin of the idea to have the interior of the pyramid a place of sepulture, and chambers might be constructed there for all of our leading silver statesmen. But in this case we should be disposed to insist upon the condition that they should be occupied at once.

The chief objection to this plan would be that the location of the pyramid would not be such as to make it an object-lesson to all the people, although in reply it could be urged that if Congress can be perpetually admonished, the chief purpose would be attained. Another objection is, that nations do not deliberately make it a practice to commemorate their inglorious and ridiculous performances, although to foreigners they may sometimes seem to do so. But this might be obviated by regarding the monument as erected, not in commemoration of the folly of past Congresses in passing silver bills, but of the wisdom of the present Congress in repealing them. Thus men celebrate the destruction of the Bastille, the repeal of the corn laws, the abolition of slavery, etc. These objections may appear to some minds to be of a momentous character, and, in view of the importance of the subject, should receive the fullest consideration.

Another plan, which avoids these objections and possesses several of the advantages, although not all, of the plan above set forth, is of genuinely utilitarian character. Vast quantities of silver are constantly absorbed in India through the propensity of the inhabitants of that region to indulge in bracelets, anklets, and nose-rings. Our countrymen and countrywomen, of course, cannot be expected to take up such practices, but we have customs that might be utilized by Government so as to bring about the same result. What proverb is most expressive of good fortune? Is it not "to be born with a silver spoon in one's mouth"? What is most earnestly desired by every bride, and regarded by large members of the community as the best evidence of social position? The possession of an abundance of silver spoons. Our people have positively refused to encumber themselves with silver dollars, but silver spoons fall into a different category. For the purpose of a spoon nothing has ever been found superior to silver, and it is not probable that anything ever will be. As a standard of social respectability the silver spoon is far less fluctuating than the silver dollar as a standard of value. The value of silver spoons is not an exchange value, but a utility value, and, as a certain school of modern economists contends, this value, to those who have none of a desired commodity, is infinite. But the great majority of our people have no silver spoons, and (if the women are allowed a voice in the matter) we are satisfied that they yearn for them far more than they have yearned for the silver dollar. Moreover, the standard of living would in this way be permanently raised—a great desideratum with sociologists—for no one that has ever been accustomed to the use of spoons of silver will ever willingly go back to wood or horn or iron or pewter. Our people would thus in a few years, if they were once accustomed to the use of silver spoons, acquire permanent proclivities like those of the Hindus, but far more rational, and a demand would thus be established which would eventually absorb all of our surplus.

There seem, therefore, to be very strong arguments in support of a measure for the transformation of our stock of silver, not into dollars, but into spoons, and for the distribution of these spoons among all our people by the Government. They should be, of course, "souvenir spoons," and they might bear the effigy of Columbus. The constitutional objection that the Government has no power to dispose of its funds in this way can be easily avoided, as it was avoided in President Jackson's time. The surplus funds were then distributed—not to the people, who as taxpayers were logically entitled to receive them back, but to the States, in the form of loans, the return of which, it was understood, would never be asked, and never has been. In this case the States at once proceeded to squander these funds, and very little now remains of them, while souvenir silver spoons would be cherished and become heirlooms of increasing value. It is true that the silversmiths might at first object to this Government competition, but they might be appeased by being employed to make the spoons, and the more enlightened would see that the increased use of silver spoons would enormously enlarge their trade in the future. Of course no objection could be raised by the silver-producers without involving them in self-stultification. Perhaps they would not mind that so much, but the proposal is so evidently in their interest that their enthusiastic support could be counted upon. As to the gold-bugs, we will answer for them. Our word for it, if the outcry for the coinage of silver dollars shall cease, not a word will be heard from Wall Street against the coinage of silver spoons. The price paid by the nation for these souvenirs may be a little high, but, as Ben Franklin observed, experience keeps a dear school, and if we can put a stop to legislative meddling with the standard of value, no price would be too high to pay for it.

BIMETALLIC THEORY.

IT would be a great misfortune if the experience through which our country is now passing should not result in some substantial gain to monetary science.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

This science is eminently an inductive one, and has been slowly developed and constantly modified by the aid of financial experiments, made by both public and private corporations. Its main outlines are now indelibly engraved, but there are many features still undetermined, and in completing these there is much work to be done. The theory of bimetallism, for instance, can hardly be maintained hereafter in the same form as in the past. That it must be modified in some respects will hardly be denied by any of its rational advocates. Whether anything will be left of it after the necessary modifications are made, is a question upon which different opinions may be entertained; but at all events it is clear that the modifications will be determined by the recognition of causes the importance of which has not been hitherto duly appreciated.

The theory of bimetallic money has certain attractions for professional economists, and it has been maintained by men familiar with business. Stated briefly, the chief advantage that its advocates dwell upon is the supposed stability of value resulting from the employment of the accumulated stock of both gold and silver as money. This vast reservoir, it is thought, cannot fluctuate violently under such relatively small additions as are made to it from the production of the mines; while if gold alone is employed as the standard, the ratio between the existing fund and the annual increment would be far greater, and the fluctuations of values therefore more extreme. On the other hand, it is objected that, while this might be true in theory if the metals were of unchangeable value relatively to each other, yet, as the ratio between them constantly varies, the comparison should be not of one reservoir, but of two, and that consequently values in general are less stable, having to adjust themselves first to one standard and then to another.

The reply of the bimetallists to this objection—and it is the only reply they can possibly make—is that the decree of the sovereign power can overcome the inequality of values. A silver dollar may be worth less than a gold dollar, but, they say, the fiat of the Government that it shall be worth as much will make it practically worth as much. The really scientific bimetallists do not press this argument to an extreme. They are disposed to admit that a "readjustment" of values may be from time to time necessary, and consider that this can be done by governmental authority. Thus one distinguished bimetallist compared bimetallic money to a pair of horses harnessed together. One horse might be stronger or faster than the other, he said, but the driver, by checking one and urging the other, could make them pull evenly and keep abreast of each other. But this comparison of course implies that there is no very great disparity between the horses. If there is, it is plain that the strain upon the driver becomes painfully severe.

Now, it is exactly this function of the driver that has been tested by our recent experience. The driver in this case consists of a President and two legislative bodies, containing some five hundred men. This composite driver took the reins of the financial chariot with the expressed purpose of maintaining "parity" between the two steeds, gold and silver. The silver steed, showing a disposition to lag, was stimulated by large purchases and by most cheering and sympathetic words, while the gold steed was sternly repressed. But the result is that the gold steed has had to do all the work, silver is practically run down and under the wheels, the driver is confused and frightened, the passengers are all trying to climb out of the wagon, and the spectators are either laughing at the amazing exhibition of incompetence or in terror at the prospect of a ruinous overthrow.

We do not see how the bimetallic theorists can deny that this experiment demonstrates the practical worthlessness of their theory. If Government can make values, their theory may answer; but whenever Government tries to do this it fails. It is not competent to exercise this function. No body of men is competent. Omnipotence alone can do that. A government is a human creation and efficient only as it adapts itself to the nature of its creator. Values are simply the embodiment of human judgments as to the relative desirability of things, and all that Government can do is to register these judgments and carry them out as well as possible. Just so soon as men find out that Government is attempting to do more than this by ordaining that what men have valued less they shall value more, the authority of Government is brought into disrepute. It may command obedience for awhile, and try to command it longer by penal legislation, but it is bound to collapse sooner or later. It might be thought that mankind had had sufficient experience to establish this principle before, but our present situation amounts to a demonstration of it according to the most rigid canons of induction.

One further element must hereafter be considered by monetary theorists, although it resolves itself into the same principle that we have just stated. It evidently makes no difference what views about money and value are held by people who have not money to lend; it is the lenders who control the situation. If business were not done upon credit, this would not be so, but it is done upon credit, and without credit our present business could not begin to be done at all. Now, Government has repeatedly tried to make people lend who did not want to, but just so soon as the lenders found out what was going on they stopped lending, or charged such a rate as insured them against loss. Hence we have a simple dilemma before Government: either put a stop to all business done on credit, or provide laws insuring lenders the return of the money or value loaned. If people who lend money want to be repaid in gold, then there is nothing for Government to do but to meet this want. Just at present they are unanimous in the opinion that they do want gold, and the Government has simply got to comply with this demand or ruin the country.

GEARY ON THE GEARY LAW.

THE Hon. Thomas J. Geary of California, like another Daniel come to judgment, expounds and defends the Chinese Exclusion Law of 1892, in the July *North American Review*. It is all a mistake, he assures us, to regard the "intention" of that law as "harsh" or "unjust," or even "unreasonable"; on the contrary, the law was "wise and right," was meant to be "beneficial to the Chinamen legally here," was, in fact, a benevolent effort of a humane government to provide for the protection of the Chinese in this country against all "inconvenience and annoyance." The Act of May, 1892, Congressman Geary explains, not only was "in accordance with the treaties made between this Government and China," but actually aimed "to prevent the deportation of the innocent," and "imposed no undue or unjust hardship" upon any of the Chinese; and "the consequences that now confront the Chinese in the United States are not the result contemplated by the act, but of the action of the Chinese themselves in defying the Government."

Mr. Geary should have told us this before and prevented all the pother. Why he waited so long, and let such a false impression get abroad, we can explain only by supposing that he thought it decent to let at least one year pass before putting himself in flat contradiction with what he said and did in Congress. In referring to the Congressional debates upon the Exclusion Act, it is necessary to distinguish between Geary as a thing in itself, as the Germans say, and Geary as shaped by circumstances. The pure and undiluted Geary appears in the bill called up by him on April 4, 1892, and supported by him in a speech, and it is by the terms of that bill and the sentiments of that speech that the Geary of the magazine article is to be judged. He now professes a great regard for the obligations of a treaty. Section 14 of his bill declared that "the provisions of all treaties now in force between the United States Government and the Chinese Empire, in so far as they, or any of them, conflict with the provisions of this act, be, and the same are, hereby abrogated, set aside, and repealed." And in his speech he met the argument that his bill was in violation of treaty obligations by valiantly saying: "I do not care what treaty may stand in the way. . . . I am prepared to abrogate every such treaty, to violate every such law."

It was also this same gentle Geary, who, in his article, is pained at the thought

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

that any one should think him capable of needlessly setting foot upon a worm, that proposed to nullify the writ of habeas corpus when sued for in behalf of Chinamen, to confiscate ships from which a Chinaman might have escaped into our territory, to imprison for five years and then deport any Chinaman crossing the boundary lines of the United States, and many other little amenities of the sort. He now says: "If we had imposed a tax upon Chinamen, . . . some modification of the law might be justifiable." What he really proposed in section 13 of his bill was to tax each Chinaman three dollars for the certificate he was to be compelled to take out, on pain of imprisonment and deportation. He gloried in this feature of his own bill, saying on May 26, 1892, after the Senate had stricken out the section, "The bill that passed this House and went into the Republican Senate provided in itself a sufficient amount to enforce the law, because it levied a tax upon every Chinaman and made him enforce the law which this Congress had passed." Yet he writes plaintively now of the "ignorance" of those who condemn the inhumanity of taxing the Chinamen to pay for their own wrongs—a proposal which innocent Congressman Geary never heard of before.

It seems a pity to criticise his description of the mildness of the law in so far as it provides for deportation. He now says that the "possible deportation" of the Chinese was "not contemplated or expected when the law was passed." It is only because the Chinese have refused to register that any of them are in danger of deportation. But a little further on he argues that as many as 49,000, out of the 106,000 Chinamen in this country, "entered in defiance of our laws." Now every mother's son of these is liable to be deported under the Geary Law, as it is not possible for them to get certificates even if they were to apply. In Geary's speech in Congress he put the number of those illegally in this country at 60,000, so that, on his own showing, the man who now says that the possible deportation was not contemplated was actually contemplating and ordering, so far as the law could do it, the deportation of considerably more than half of all the Chinamen in the United States.

The only other point we shall notice in which Mr. Geary the magazinist gives the lie to Mr. Geary the Congressman, is in what he says about the duty of enforcing the law. He dismisses the argument that we should injure our Chinese trade, by saying that we should be "better off without any part or portion of it." The reason for this is that the Chinaman, in spite of all we have done for him, persists in allowing "no sentiment to influence or affect him in the matter of trade, but buys where he can buy the cheapest, and sells in the market that will take at the highest price the greatest amount of his commodities." Clearly there can be no profit in trading with such an unfeeling fellow. As little regard has Mr. Geary for what he calls "the Fatherhood-of-God and the brotherhood-of-man standpoint." This "beautiful sentiment" has no charms for him, as "American interests in the far West" are of "more consequence than the maintenance of missionary stations in China," and the law should be enforced to protect those interests. The sufficient answer to this from the Geary-and-sand lots standpoint is that, on his own confession, the law is entirely inadequate to protect those interests, and therefore that there is no use of enforcing it. On April 4, 1892, he said of his own bill, yet unshorn of a single tooth or claw, "*No measure short of this* will effect the purpose desired by our people." When it came back from the Senate, he grieved that the "drastic features" had been knocked out of it, and said that the Conference Committee "gave away everything in the House bill." Why then, we ask, answering Geary according to his Gearyishness, should we enforce a law which, by his own confession, is certain to prove as ineffective and useless as he admits the laws of 1882 and 1888 to have been?

THE PRINCIPLE OF "BETTERMENT" IN ENGLAND.

THE House of Commons has recently voted that in raising funds for metropolitan improvements, the land immediately benefited shall contribute as well as the taxpayers at large. This principle has been so long embedded in American jurisprudence that nothing seems to us more palpably equitable. A landowner who should insist that if a park was laid out in front of his residence, whereby its value was doubled, the entire expense should be borne by the public, would here be thought extremely unreasonable. If he should declare that any assessment for benefit levied upon his land under these circumstances was "robbery," he would be thought crazy. But this is the position occupied by landowners in London as a class. They maintain that among their "vested rights of property" is one that all increments of value, however arising, shall go to the landlord. It is perhaps owing partly to this bigoted and irrational conservatism that socialistic proposals have come into so much favor of late years in England. Where rights of property are pressed to such an extreme it is not surprising that somewhat violent reactions should take place.

Curiously enough, the principle of betterment which is denounced in England as an "Americanism" was formerly recognized by the law of that country, and the *Daily News* points out that Pepys records in his diary an application of it when London was rebuilt after the Great Fire. It seems to have been transplanted to this country, and to have been recognized in our law from a very early period, while it has been abandoned in England. Its application by commissions instead of juries has been attacked in this State as depriving owners of their property without due process of law, but the courts have not sustained this claim. In some States, as in New Jersey, we believe, the verdict of a jury may be invoked as a matter of right, but we do not know that it is anywhere contended that the principle, if properly applied, is unjust. At the time when the land upon which the Exhibition at Chicago is now taking place was devoted to public uses as a park, assessments for betterment were levied upon land six miles distant. Yet who can say that the increased attractiveness of the city due to this park may not have increased the value of every foot of land within the corporate limits much more than in proportion to the cost of the improvement? The value to the city of New York of the acquisition of Central Park was inestimable. Not only the property in its vicinity was increased in value, but the city in general, as a place of residence, as a place of resort, and even as a place of business, has derived great pecuniary benefit from the existence of this "midway pleasance."

There have been cases of the grossest abuse of this principle. In this city, in Brooklyn, in some of the neighboring cities of New Jersey, and doubtless throughout the land, there have been assessments for betterment that have amounted to confiscation. This is a good reason for putting safeguards about the operation of the law, and the present widening of Elm Street in this city and the recent New Church Street case show that, with our form of municipal government, the dangers of corruption and oppression are serious. This, however, is not because of any vice in the principle, but because of its abuse. And this seems to be all that the opponents of the measure could say against it in Parliament. One of them declared that it was unjust, because it was impossible for anybody to estimate adequately the increased value given to property by public improvements. The bill, however, proposed that the owner of property increased in value by a public improvement should pay in gross only half the amount of the increase, or else pay 3 per cent. upon this amount as an annual charge. It is quite incredible that the increased value of land due to such causes should not be susceptible of calculation with sufficient accuracy to prevent any actual confiscation under such an act as this, especially as the County Council was allowed seven years' time to make its calculations and assessments.

It is true that the practice of levying taxes through local or parish rates in London tends to impose the charge for improvement more directly upon property benefited than our own system of a uniform tax throughout the municipality. But the equitable adjustment of rates appears to be a matter of as much difficulty as the estimate of betterments, and the argument based upon this ground has little weight.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The true objection, as was frankly avowed by one member, is that the adoption of this principle is dreaded by property-owners as the first step towards the "Henry George theory" that all increment in the value of land belongs to the community. It is quite probable that much of the support given to the bill in the House of Commons — it was adopted by 216 votes against 118—was given by believers in this theory. But it should be remembered that the main objections to this theory have always been (1) that its author, or more properly its most noted advocate, insisted that all existing increments of value in land should be confiscated, and (2) that upon the scale proposed by him the plan was practically inexpedient as causing greater injustice than it remedied. When, as has been demonstrated in this country, it can be ascertained that a particular public improvement causes a definite private gain, the fact that certain theorists are in favor of the principle from other motives is not sufficient to prevent its adoption. At the same time the fact that the act in question fails to provide any compensation for property-owners who experience damage and not benefit from the public improvement, is from our point of view extremely deplorable. So long as landowners as a class were not assessed for betterments they could not claim to be compensated for damages, but when the betterment principle is adopted that of compensation for injury should go with it. We fear that in this case the hostility of the socialistic elements to "vested interests" may have overcome their regard for equity.

GUY DE MAUPASSANT.

THE news of the death of this brilliant writer comes not unexpectedly, and lovers of literature will regret that no more of those marvellously strong tales which make Maupassant's real fame will ever again appear to delight and entrance them. It is as a *conteur* that Maupassant will live in French literature; among his longer works one novel, 'Pierre et Jean,' will probably survive, but of his tales one hazards nothing in saying that a large majority will endure to be read for many a year. Maupassant was not wholly a beast or a sensualist; he was both in part, and unhappily in one or other of those aspects he is best known to most people, even to those who are acquainted with him solely through translations. But he was also, and primarily, a rarely keen observer and a writer of great dramatic power. Very few writers—Alphonse Daudet is among the exceptions—have come up to Maupassant's level in the short tale, in which not a word is wasted, not an incident unnecessary, not a line written in excess; and this not in the class of work referred to as bestial or sensual, but in that rich series of stories which, whether in the original French or the weaker English, may be put in the hands of almost any reader. The simplicity of the means employed conceals the consummate skill with which the tale is constructed; the attention, captivated at the outset, remains riveted to the end, and not occasionally only, but invariably. The characters live; in a few touches Maupassant makes them real to us; in a few pages we have learned to know them, to sympathize with them, to remember them long afterwards. The Corsican mother, the little soldier, the great hunter, the coward, live in the mind when once their story has been read; Père Toine is unforgettable; the old vagabond, the wretched dog, the poor ass cannot fade from memory. Taking the whole range of tale-writers in French and English, there is not one who has noted so many varied types and characters, who has impressed so many of them on the mind, as Maupassant. The fact that he is not so one-sided as Zola or Bourget nearly compensates for his lack of sustained power in longer work.

Maupassant belongs to the naturalistic school; he sees the very ugly side of life, but he sees also the brighter. No more than his fellows does he give us a noble, a lofty ideal, but more than they he lights up his work with a touch of pathos, of healthy fun, of genuine feeling. His characters are not all despicable, not all mean and vile. Even when, as in 'Un Bock,' he depicts fallen man, he succeeds in awakening pity for the victim. The farmer's wife who sells the broken-down old donkey to the pair of scamps, in 'L'Âne,' has genuine human feeling and shows it, and we are grateful to Maupassant as an artist and a man for recording that feeling. He is impersonal, very largely, but not so much that his sympathies are wholly extinct; they break out at times and give what is even a sweet touch. Maupassant is much better than his reputation; the public generally has seized eagerly upon the sensual part of his work, and that has become best known. To palates accustomed to the fiery spices of the filthy school, the beauty and worth of the purer and better portions of his work are undistinguishable; none the less they exist, and over and above the tales already translated for decent readers are fully as many more quite fitted for general publication, and, equally with some not so to be classed, exhibiting the peculiar power and attractiveness of the writer.

Of the longer works of Maupassant, none deserves to survive save 'Pierre et Jean.' Harsh and arbitrary, as well as premature, as this judgment must appear at first sight, it is likely to be justified by time. 'Bel Ami,' 'Mont Oriol,' 'Notre Cœur,' 'Fort comme la Mort,' in spite of their literary qualities and the remarkable powers of analysis and observation they evidence, are not in a strict sense strong works. 'Pierre et Jean' is. The subject is unpleasant, but it can scarcely be called illegitimate. It is treated gravely, seriously. Sensuality is almost wholly absent. Neither the story itself nor the manner of telling it will corrupt. It is really moral in its tendency; stern in reproof, firm in warning. The very impersonality of the author, his detaching himself from his characters, and the simple manner in which the dread, repulsive truth is slowly brought out, contribute to the moral value of the work. There are better ways of teaching morality, and it were to be wished that those alone were needed; but some people who could not be uplifted by pure ideals may be deterred by such uncompromising narrations.

'Sur l'Eau' will be read chiefly for the insight it gives into the author's state of mind when the balance of reason was already in part upset and the mind was losing its hold. In the light of what happened soon afterwards and of the death that has now come, there are pages in it inexpressibly sorrowful, for in them is heard the cry of a lost, a despairing soul. Maupassant paid dearly for beliefs and unbeliefs, for use and abuse of power, for pride of life and pride of intellect; and some notion of the price is had in the revelations of 'Sur l'Eau. He prostituted art again and again, pandering to the debased tastes of a public whose ceaseless craving reacted upon him and impelled him to repeat his offences. Happily what is good in his work will not be buried with his bones.

PASQUIER'S NAPOLEONIC MEMOIRS.

PARIS, June 23, 1893.

STILL a new book on the Napoleonic era, the Memoirs of Chancellor Pasquier. The first part only has appeared; it extends from 1789 to 1810, and will be followed by several others. The realistic school has found its true expression: we are getting tired of novels, and the prodigious success of the memoirs which are now published in rapid succession on the time of the Revolution and of the Empire shows a curious tendency of the public mind: we are hungry for facts, root facts, and find memoirs more interesting than the numberless productions of the novelists, which give us only imaginary facts. And, in truth, can anything be more interesting than what has real life? At the same time it must be remarked that our interest has narrow limits: the things which interest us must not be too distant. We would turn our backs on a historian who should speak to us of Louis XIV. or of Henri IV.; we wish to know everything, even the minutest details, only about the men and women who have a near connection with our own time. We care no more for the eighteenth century than we do about the Greeks and the Romans.

"Qui me délivrera des Grecs et des Romains?"

In short, we become more and more modern as we become more and more realistic.

The Memoirs of Chancellor Pasquier were certainly not expected with as much eagerness as those of Talleyrand; but they were known to be interesting, and could hardly fail to be so, as Pasquier had been in high places for many years and under many governments. He was commonly cited as the man who had taken the greatest number of oaths of office; he was one of the most curious products of our numerous revolutions—a type of the men who think themselves faithful to themselves as long as as they are faithful to the State; office-holders under every régime, always ready to criticise the régime which they serve; servants born, but good servants; one of those who candidly think, what was once said, that "the more régimes a man has served, the more fit he is to serve a new one."

Beneath this versatility it is not impossible to discern some innate and indefeasible traits, some permanent characteristics. Pasquier was born and remained to the end a man of the old Parlement of Paris, what we still call a Parliamentarian—by which word we designate those great families *de robe* which did not belong to the *noblesse d'épée*, but sometimes had alliances with it; families which were all rich and lived in great style. Between the noblemen who were at court and the opulent and extravagant *fermiers-généraux*, they formed a proud class, which owed its importance to the administration of justice. The Parlement placed them in contact with dukes and peers and princes of the blood, and Saint-Simon tells us, with his usual eloquence, how they contrived to defend and to augment their prerogatives. The Parliamentarians had, by

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

a sort of natural selection, formed in the end a curious coterie; they were submissive to the Crown, though there remained in them a remnant of the old Fronde, extremely jealous of their privileges, inclined to Jansenism, as it had always been their duty to defend the King against the pretensions of Rome. The Parlement was averse to all novelties, though many of its members had been influenced by the ideas of the philosophers; it had all the defects of a close corporation without any of the advantages of a deliberative assembly.

Pasquier was born in 1767. His education was, so to speak, twofold: it bore the impress of the old ideas, and at the same time of the new philosophical and irreligious ideas. He spent the greater part of his youth at Coutans, an estate which was a short distance from Le Mans, in a province over which the jurisdiction of the Parlement of Paris was extended. He was admitted as counsellor to that Parlement in 1787, at the age of twenty. He was too young to take any large part in the struggles which had begun between the Parlement and the Court. There was a great agitation all over France in favor of the convocation of the States-General (they had not been summoned since 1614). An old counsellor said to Pasquier: "Young man, this idea was already discussed during the life of your grandfather, and this is what he always told us: 'This is no child's play; remember, gentlemen, that the first time that France sees States-General again she will see also a terrible revolution.'"

Pasquier enters into many details on the period which preceded 1789. "I saw the Bastille taken," he says. "What has been called the *combat* was not serious; the resistance was absolutely null; there were no munitions in the fortress, it was not even necessary to invest it." The blow, nevertheless, was strong, and the old régime was demolished with the old prison. "The year 1789 saw the end," says Pasquier, "of the social life which had so long constituted the charm of France. Political quarrels, violent discussions, passions, troubled society and dispersed its elements." Pasquier was a Royalist, but he seems never to have experienced a strong passion. "Though I was convinced that we defended the good cause, I could not help thinking that our adversaries had more cleverness than ourselves. Many of us had adopted the principle (I did not share their error) that to arrive at something better, we had to go through something worse." He disapproved of the emigration; he did not believe that it was possible to make a French kingdom, a French King, out of France. "The crusaders of Saint Bernard," he says, "started to conquer a foreign land; they did not return to reconquer their own."

We have in Pasquier a witness of a great many of the revolutionary *journées*. It is rather singular to find in his book a number of passages beginning in this way: "I was accidentally going through such or such a street, the day when, etc. . . ." He met accidentally Mlle. Contat of the French Theatre at the storming of the Bastille. He was accidentally at the races at Vincennes, the day when Réveillon was murdered, and saw on his return an insurrectionary movement. It was accidentally that he struck with his foot the body of Foulon in the Rue Richelieu; accidentally that he saw the arrival of the unfortunate Berthier at the Hôtel de Ville. There came a time, however, when Pasquier had to conceal himself in the country. He wandered to Abbeville, to Champigny, a village in the neighborhood of the capital; in his retreat he contrived to get married—he does not say to whom in his Memoirs; he merely says that "it is somewhat difficult to understand how people could then think of anything but their peril, and could dare to be married." His father was arrested and executed; he succeeded in hiding himself a little time longer, but finally was thrown with his wife into the prison of Saint-Lazare. He entered it on the 8th Thermidor, and on the 9th Thermidor Robespierre was hurled from power; a reaction set in, and Pasquier owed his life to this timely revolution. He had seen Louis XVI. on the scaffold, he now saw the execution of Fouquier-Tinville. He established himself at Croissy, where he entered into relations with Josephine de Beauharnais, who was to become the Empress Josephine.

"Chance placed me, one evening at the play, next to a box occupied by two very pretty women who were unknown to me. In the midst of the representation, they received a message. I saw great movements and signs of joy. They went away, and I heard that they were the sisters of Bonaparte, who had just landed from Egypt."

The conduct of Bonaparte on his return was "a prodigy of cleverness"; he kept all parties uncertain of his design, he was a living enigma. Pasquier gives us, with many details, the history of the 18th Brumaire; he does not pretend to give the military history of Bonaparte, but shows us the difficulties with which the First Consul had to contend at home. He is especially familiar with the conspiracies of the Jacobins and the Royalists, as he afterwards became Prefect of Police and had all the original documents in his hands. The conspiracy of Pichegru, his suicide, the arrest of Georges Cadoudal, of Gen. Moreau, of the Prince de Polignac, form an interesting chapter of his book. Bonaparte seemed at one moment to have lived in constant fear of his life.

We come now to the terrible tragedy of the Duc d'Enghien. Pasquier throws almost all the odium of the crime on Talleyrand; it was, if we believe Pasquier, Talleyrand, then Minister of Foreign Affairs, who advised Bonaparte to seize the Duke at Ettenheim, in the territory of Baden:

"The very day the news of the seizure of the Duc d'Enghien arrived at Paris, there was a ball at the Hôtel de Luynes. M. de Talleyrand was there. Somebody asked him in a somewhat low voice: 'But what will you do with the Duc d'Enghien?' He answered: 'He will be shot.' A lady who was close by and heard the question and the answer, told me both the next morning."

Two secret councils had taken place at the First Consul's, where the question of the Duke had been agitated. In this Council, "M. de Talleyrand," says Pasquier, "was of opinion that the greatest possible rigor should be used." All the actors in this fearful drama afterwards tried to exonerate themselves in a degree—Caulaincourt, who was sent to Ettenheim; Réal, Savary, Hulin, the officers who formed the council of war at Vincennes. Talleyrand in his Memoirs takes great pains to do the same thing. Pasquier's testimony is certainly not without value; he maintains that Talleyrand furnished Bonaparte with all the arguments he could use. "The death of the Duke would be in the eyes of the world a just reprisal; he must teach the House of Bourbon that the blows it tried to strike would fall on itself." One thing is certain, the day after the fatal event Talleyrand wrote to the Powers the official despatch in which he explained it in diplomatic style.

Bonaparte always called the Duc d'Enghien "le malheureux" in the conversations which he afterwards had with Talleyrand, on whom he tried to throw a large portion of the responsibility. In the violent scene at their rupture in 1809, he reproached him bitterly with, among many other things, the advice which he had given him in the affair of the Duke. At St. Helena, however, when he wrote his will, he inserted in it with his own hand this paragraph:

"I had the Duc d'Enghien arrested and tried because it was necessary to the safety and the interest of the French people, at a time when the Comte d'Artois had in his pay sixty assassins in Paris; under the same circumstances, I would act in the same manner."

The very haughtiness of this declaration makes us infer that Napoleon could not always think without remorse of the innocent man of twenty whom he had dragged to Vincennes, and shot on the night of his arrival, after the mockery of a military trial. Lamartine says in his beautiful Meditation on Bonaparte, in which he describes him walking on the seashore:

"*Et toujours en passant la vague vengeresse*
Lui jetait le nom de Condé."

Correspondence.

COLOR SENSE IN WOMEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Gratifying as it is to find that I was not mistaken in supposing that woman's immunity from color-blindness can be made into an item in the long list of her weaknesses, if one only takes the trouble to think a little, I have to ask "C.'s" attention to the fact that she is quite inaccurate in saying that I inquire how the comparative freedom of women from color-blindness can be reconciled with the supposed inferiority of the sex. It would be silly to suppose any single trait of superiority to require reconciliation with either a real or a supposed inferiority of the sex, and especially so small a matter as the one in question; and as I imagine it is on the score of silliness that "C." has referred to me as a woman, I have ventured, on the ground of inaccuracy, to place her likewise in the inferior sex.

What I did say, as I have intimated above, is that the peculiarity referred to "must indicate some deep-rooted inferiority." The challenge thus playfully made has been accepted in earnest by "C.," who, however, has not perhaps been entirely successful in meeting it. For, granting that the male has more capacity for variation than the female, it should be mentioned, first, that color-blindness is not an instance of "variation" in the biologist's sense of the word, being in all probability a case of atavism; and, secondly, that the attribution of keener color-sense to the female's interest in the colors of the male does not seem in any way to support the charge of inferiority. As to the absence of great painters among women, much goes to the making of a great painter (not least of all stimulus, sympathy, opportunity) besides keenness of color-sense, and it would be rash indeed to infer from women not being great painters—as "C." does—that the keenest color-sense in women is inferior to that in men. If A's money amounts to a thousand dollars and B's to only ten, is it quite logical to infer that even of copper pennies A has more than B?

X.

July 8, 1893.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

BORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Though, as you point out in your 1459th issue, *bore*, whether as a substantive or as a verb, has been current much longer than "only of late years," it may be interesting to some to see a few old authorities for it additional to those produced by Dr. Murray in the *New English Dictionary*. The following exemplifications of it all date upwards of a century back.

The first group of quotations is for the substantive, in the sense of 'thing that annoys,' etc.

"What a terrible *boar* [*sic*] it has been all this day!" Miss F. Burney (1771), *Early Diary* (1889), vol. i., p. 171.

"Books now are become quite a *Bore* to me." Anon., *Learning at a Loss* (1778), vol. i., p. 37.

"One great *bore* was, that the whole room rose," etc. Miss C. A. Burney (1782), in Miss F. Burney's *Early Diary* (1889), vol. ii., p. 303.

"I presently learnt that he considered . . . matrimony as a *bore*." *New Spectator* (1784), No. xxii., p. 6.

"The next change surprized rather than pleased, . . . upon which Folly turned her back and cried 'a *Bore*.'" Robert Bage, *Barham Downs* (1784), vol. ii., p. 4.

"To this . . . he turned an ear of nonchalance, vowed it was an excessive *bore*," etc. Anon., in *Microcosm* (1786), No. vi.

"It was an arrant *bore* to be terrified with the sight of hieroglyphics," etc. Anon., in *Trifler*, No. xxxix. (1789).

As a personal epithet, *bore* is found, by Dr. Murray, first in 1812. Apparently, however, it was not unknown thirty-seven years earlier:

"If you attempt to tell a story, one puppy puts his hand to his cheek, and cries Patch! implying, it seems, that the tale is old, and smells of Joe Miller, and, if you continue your narration a minute and half, another puppy turns to a monkey next him, and whispers, 'what a *bore!* or *boar!*' for I don't know how they spell their nonsense; but (take it which way you will) it is intended to convey an idea of tediousness, and to compare the speaker to a hog or a gimlet." George Colman, *Gentleman*, No. iv. (1775).

Here are some eighteenth century quotations for *bore*, the verb:

"It brings with it a consumed long string of past transactions, that *bore* me to death." "Excuse my *boring* you with these trifles." Anon., *Sylph* (1779), vol. i., pp. 19, 240.

"Oh, I abominate your grave reflections, Sir George; they *bore* one to death." Robert Bage, *Barham Downs* (1784), vol. ii., p. 330.

"The audience . . . were once more *bored* with Harlequin Rambler!" *New Spectator* (1784), No. iv., p. 7.

Of the adjective *bore*, unrecorded by lexicographers, I have come across a single instance:

"I believe, Louisa, I must send you a dictionary of polite phrases, or you will be much at a loss, notwithstanding you have a pretty competent knowledge of the French tongue. I blush twenty times a day at my own stupidity; and then sir William tells me, 'it is so immensely *bore* to blush,' which makes me blush ten times more, because I don't understand what he means by that expression, and I am afraid to discover my ignorance, and he has not patience to explain every ambiguous word he uses, but cries, shrugging up his shoulders, 'Ah! quel sa[u]vage!' and then composes his ruffled spirits by humming an Italian air." Anon., *Sylph* (1779), vol. i., p. 62.

Here is corroborated, in a way, the suggestion of Dr. Murray, based on his citations, that the obsolete word for "boredom," taken subjectively, or "tedium," as also for "a person bored," namely, *bore*, was, together with its cognate verb, derived to us, somehow, from France. Its etymology being still to be solved, it is a pity that Miss Julia Stanley, who epistolizes as above, did not master her blushes, and insist on a full exposition of Sir William's mysterious phraseology. Noticeably, the scholarly Colman did not surmise the presence of an exotic in "what a *bore!*" It may be added that Shakespeare's *bores*, in *Henry VIII.*, is no longer interpreted 'wearies,' 'annoys,' but 'plays upon,' 'makes game of,' 'tricks.'

F. H.

Marlesford, England, June 27, 1893.

TYPESCRIPT AND TYPOSCRIPT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having used type-writing machines for upwards of ten years—the Caligraph, the Remington, and the Franklin—I have, during nearly all that time, spoken and written of work thus composed as *typoscript*. It is more mellifluous than typescript.—Yours, etc.,

Nathan Haskell Dole.

Boston, July 7, 1893.

Notes.

This summer witnesses two anniversaries of events closely associated with the history of the literature of sylvan England: one, the centenary of the death of Gilbert White; the other, the tercentenary of the birth of Izaak Walton. The former was celebrated on Midsummer Day (June 24) by a visit of the Selborne Society to the Hampshire village from which it takes its name, where the 'Natural History' and 'Antiquities' gathered their unfailing charm and freshness, and where the present occupier of 'The Wakes' had offered to throw open the house and grounds. On August 9 Stafford, Walton's birthplace, although not, like White's rural parish, his religiously retained home, will be the scene of festivities which are to be attended by representatives from the various angling clubs throughout England. Mr. Alexander Cargill will contribute a paper on the Father of Angling to the August number of one of our magazines, while the autumn will bring forth still another edition of the 'Complete Angler,' to be called the tercentenary edition. The publishers will be Samuel Bagster & Sons; the notes and elucidations of the author's statements, from the point of view of a modern scientific naturalist, will be supplied by the librarian to the Linnean Society, Mr. J. E. Harting. The work, in two quarto volumes, will be an *édition de luxe*, printed on hand-made paper, with plates on Japanese vellum. The illustrations will consist partly of portraits and facsimiles, partly of etchings after paintings by John Linnell, senior, supplemented by drawings, by G. E. Lodge, of birds and river-side animals.

Swan Sonnenschein & Co., London, have in press 'The Story of Louis XVII. of France,' by Elizabeth E. Evans, author of a recent work on 'Caspar Hauser.' She aims to prove that the Indian missionary, Eleazer Williams, was the son of Louis XVI., and to show the futility of the claims of Naundorff and other minor pretenders.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, have in press five volumes of selections in prose and verse for the young, called "The Heart of Oak Books." They have been edited by Prof. Charles Eliot Norton and Miss Kate Stephens.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will publish directly a volume of personal reminiscences of Whittier by Mrs. William Claflin.

Lee & Shepard announce a story of Jewish life, 'Joseph Zalmonah,' by Edward King, and 'Paula Ferris,' by Mrs. Mary Farley Sanborn.

'The Literature of Philanthropy,' soon to be issued by Harper & Bros., will form the second volume of the woman-made "Distaff Series," edited by Frances E. Goodale.

The Open Court Publishing Co., Chicago, have nearly ready an authorized translation of Prof. E. Mach's 'The Science of Mechanics.'

From the annual report of the Boston Registry Department we learn that Mr. Whitmore is about to print in a pamphlet the city's death returns from 1810 to 1850, a term covering "several periods of extra mortality from fevers, cholera, and lung diseases." Also, that the Record Commissioners have in press a volume of Boston births, deaths, and marriages from 1700 to 1800. The report is curious for a list of Chinese marriages registered in Boston, 1885-1892. The brides had such familiar New England names as Church, Wilson, Chase, Howard, Weeden, Roberts, Bassett, Perry, Fitch, McLean, Leach, McKay, West, Bennett, Locke, Post, White, Comstock, Harrison, Whipple, Franklin, Fletcher, Hayward, Raymond, and Sawyer, to say nothing of Smith and Johnson. The rarity of Irish names is remarkable.

The *Commercial and Financial Chronicle* has issued in bound form its weekly numbers for the first six months of 1893, constituting the fifty-sixth volume of the series. These volumes are, notoriously, an invaluable library of reference on financial history; the tables of weekly security quotations and fluctuations, and the news data in monetary and corporate finance, being compiled with fulness and accuracy not approached in any other publication. The bound volumes include the bi-monthly *Investors' Supplement*, itself a work of convenient form and trustworthy authority regarding the finances and history of railroad and miscellaneous corporations, and the lately introduced *State and City Supplement*, a similar text-book on public securities. A file of the *Chronicle* is indispensable to a financial library.

Prof. Thomson's 'Notes on Recent Researches in Electricity and Magnetism' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) is an excellent work, intended as a sequel to the great 'Treatise on Electricity and Magnetism' of Clerk Maxwell, the first edition of which was published about twenty years since. The author adopts Maxwell's theory absolutely, and has made a very interesting and successful attempt to apply that theory to the recent progress of electrical science. His work is by no means exclusively mathematical. The seven chapters of which it is made up contain all the purely physical details necessary for a clear understanding of the mathematical treatment. The long chapter on the passage of electricity through gases gives a very full account of the best experimental work, and most readers will, we think, find it an especially agreeable and suggestive study. Almost the same may be said of the chapter on electro-magnetic waves, in which is given an account of the memorable researches of Hertz and of most of the work of others in the same direction. Other chapters, again, are more purely mathematical, and, taking the volume as a whole, we must regard it as a very important contribution to physics.

Only a few weeks after the appearance of the English translation of Mme. Arvède Barine's sketch of Bernardin de Saint-Pierre, her sketch of Alfred de Musset was published in Paris as the twenty-fifth volume of M. Jusserand's admirable series, "Les Grands Écrivains Français" (Paris: Hachette; New York: Christern). There are already two biographies of Musset in existence—one by his brother

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Paul, and one in German by Paul Lindau—but Mme. Barine's sketch, brief as it is, contains much not hitherto printed. Especially, fresh light is thrown on what may be called the George Sand chapter of Musset's career. The complete Sand-Musset correspondence is in the possession of Mme. Maurice Sand, and Mme. Barine was allowed to inspect it, although Musset's family still forbids the printing of any of his letters. In summing up, she quotes from Lindau, Taine, and Sir F. T. Palgrave; but no notice is taken of Henry James's paper on Musset in his 'French Poets and Novelists.' Mme. Barine formally accuses Paul de Musset of deliberate misrepresentation.

On the 28th of April Prof. Konrad von Maurer of the University of Munich celebrated his seventieth birthday, and, in addition to the congratulations usual on such occasions, received a stately volume entitled 'Germanistische Abhandlungen' (Göttingen: Dietrich), containing treatises by Oscar Brenner, Felix Dahn, and other pupils on Old German and Scandinavian history, literature, language, and law. This broad field Von Maurer's researches more than those of any other scholar have opened up, and in it he is now acknowledged to be the greatest living authority. The essays are in German, Danish, Swedish, and Icelandic, and possess no small amount of interest in themselves, apart from their value as a splendid tribute of personal esteem and an evidence of the far-reaching influence of Von Maurer's labors as a teacher and an author.

L'Art is a mother work to many collections from its articles and illustrations, as we have remarked from time to time. In the series "Les Artistes Célèbres," the latest brochure is that on the brothers Van Ostade, by Marguerite Van de Wiele, which is equipped with sixty-five process engravings, of varying degrees of clearness and utility ('Les Frères Van Ostade,' Paris: L. Allison & Cie.; New York: Macmillan). From the same storehouse come two fascicules of 101 plates without letter-press, entitled 'Paysagistes Contemporains.' There is a show of universality, and the arrangement is alphabetical, but France occupies more than half the field, and Russia and the peninsular countries of Europe (but for two Italian landscapes) are quite unrepresented. These memoranda, more or less coarse and inadequate, of course tell something about the original canvases and about the "schools," but they can convey but little pleasure in themselves.

'Kilmât 'Araby' is the title of a pretty text-book published privately at Florence by Prof. Willard Fiske, and being in fact a list of 'Arabic words arranged in the order of the alphabet, with an attached grammar.' The words are from the vulgar Arabic, and the compiler follows the lead of Spitta Bey in seeking to make this language a literary one. With the aid of Mr. Socrates Spiro, who is himself diligently preparing a much more extensive vocabulary, Prof. Fiske has got together about 7,000 words taken down in Cairo or along the Nile, and has appended grammatical paradigms and illustrative sentences—these last intended to show that the spoken language is capable of being used to convey literary and scientific information. He has adopted Spitta Bey's simple and ingenious modification of the Latin alphabet, but discards the semi-vowels, now associated with the greatly corrupted classical Arabic employed by the Egyptian and Syrian press, in which Prof. Fiske sees the marks of caducity.

The *Illustrated Archæologist*, edited by J. Romilly Allen and published in London by Chas. J. Clark, No. 4 Lincoln's Inn Fields, W. C., lies before us in its initial number, for June. The typography is excellent and the illustrations numerous. The opening article is on the making of gun-flints and tinder-flints at Brandon, a village on the borders of Suffolk and Norfolk, and very curious details are given as to the mining of the flint and the fashioning of it. The neighborhood has always been the seat of a flint industry from prehistoric times. The present support of it is found in the demand on the one hand for tinder-boxes in tropical countries, where damp is to be feared in the case of other modes of striking fire, and on the other for flints to replenish the old-time muskets which have been sold to the natives of Africa. In the paper on portable Roman anvils found at Silchester, it is stated that similar ones are now made in Birmingham for export to Spain and elsewhere. Very interesting is the paper "Half-an-Hour in the Grosvenor Museum, Chester." Others relate to precious objects, architecture, etc. There are Notes on Museums, Notes on Archæology, and Notes on Books, all abounding in pictures. The *Archæologist* promises well for entertainment and instruction.

The Munich *Medicinische Wochenschrift* of June 10 contains the first part of an exceedingly interesting article entitled "Die Cholera asiatica eine durch die Cholerabacillen verursachte Nitritvergiftung," and embodying the results of the joint bacteriological researches of Prof. Dr. Rud. Emmerich of Munich and Prof. Dr. Jiro Tsuboi, a Japanese pupil of Dr. Koch. That the comma-bacilli produce nitrous acid and nitrite is no new discovery—bacteriologists have been familiar with this phenomenon for some time; but instead of seeking the cause of the destructiveness of the microbes in this secretion, they have directed their attention chiefly to the poisonous albuminous substances which they have discovered in "cholera-cultures," but which prove to be the contents of the cells of dead bacilli and therefore perfectly harmless so far as the genesis of the disease is concerned. It is the active product of their vital functions, and not any lifeless residuum of decomposition and decay, that works the mischief. By a series of experiments on rabbits, Profs. Emmerich and Tsuboi have shown that the symptoms of cholera and of poisoning by nitrite are perfectly identical in their action on the blood and on every part of the organism. If this discovery is all it purports to be, it is one of the most important hitherto made, inasmuch as its therapeutic application for the suppression and prevention of cholera will be comparatively easy and thoroughly effective.

—Following a line of thought somewhat parallel to that of Mr. Winsor's article on public libraries in the June *Atlantic*, Mr. Edward S. Morse, in the current number of the same periodical, brings forward various arguments in favor of establishing public museums on a similar scale in all local centres. The advocates of education by training the faculty of observation rather than the faculties aroused by book-reading may well maintain that for such purposes a well-organized museum would far outweigh the ordinary library, with its disproportionate circulation of fiction, exciting merely in a loose way the lower functions of the imagination. In directing and training the inquiring, eager mind the museum undoubtedly plays a great part, and no one can deny its importance as an adjunct to the school and to the library; but we doubt whether as a means of popular education the zoölogical or historical museum has yet been proved to possess the virtues that its most earnest advocates claim for it. In other articles in the same number we recognize familiar hands. Sir Edward Strachey describes with quiet grace the varied scenes attendant on a general election in England, and adds a dialogue discussing questions of political welfare and expediency suggested by it; and Harriet Waters Preston and her collaborator contribute a first paper on Petrarch's letters. Interesting, also, is an article aimed against the popular impression that so-called circumstantial evidence is totally distinct from other kinds of evidence, and that proof based on it is scarcely worthy of implicit credence.

—Herman Grimm, in a most instructive essay in the June number of the *Deutsche Rundschau*, gives an account of the wonderful effects produced by the stereopticon as a means of teaching the history of art. No other form of reproduction seems to him as well qualified to bring out the essential features of a work of art as this. Permitting one, as it does, to enhance the proportions of the object in question at will, it enables us to subject every line and every curve to the closest examination, and thus renders to the art student the same service which the physicist derives from the microscope. But in some cases the service of the stereopticon is of a still higher nature. Some works of art which, in the artist's imagination, were conceived in colossal dimensions, have through circumstances been prevented from being carried out in their natural grandeur. These the stereopticon restores to their true size. Grimm illustrates this in a most conclusive manner through an analysis of the principal works of Dürer, Holbein, and Rembrandt. Dürer's "Knight, Death, and Devil," for instance, is known to us only through an engraving of a few inches in height. This Herman Grimm threw on the screen, and at once it loomed up before him in such overwhelming statuesque proportions that it was perfectly clear that here was the form in which Dürer's mind originally harbored this gigantic conception, to execute which in its genuine dimensions he found, however, no opportunity. In a similar manner the "Passion," the "Apocalyptic Visions," the "Adoration of the Trinity," when cast upon the screen, seemed to expand and to blossom out into fuller life. The latter work at once took its place by the side of Raphael's "Disputà." As Grimm says himself in his inimitable manner: "It was a new experience for me thus to see Dürer's works at once enlarged and simplified. The master stood before me as one redeemed. It seemed to me as though his pictures for centuries had been held in prison, and were only now freed and permitted to appear what they really are."

—Among the Government exhibits at the Columbian Fair there is a turn-table stack of official publications. These, in gay bindings, attract the eyes of many passers-by, and incline some weary wayfarers to look at their contents. It is a pity so many of them were so carelessly compiled. Seeming to speak with authority, they will stereotype errors in readers who cannot, or will not, "go behind the returns." One attractive volume is a "Statistical Abstract of the United States, Fifteenth No., 1892." In this work one heading is, "Date of admission" of new States into the Union," and the date of the act of Congress admitting Wisconsin is given as March 3, 1847. This statement makes that State about fifteen months older than it is represented in hundreds of Wis-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

consin books, and so naturally excites surprise. The Abstract, however, cites a supreme authority—the United States Statutes, vol. ix., p. 178. Turning to the volume and page thus referred to, we discover that an act was passed by Congress at the time mentioned in the Abstract, admitting Wisconsin into the Union—not, however, unconditionally, but provided that the electors there should assent to a Constitution which had been adopted by a Territorial Convention December 16, 1846. The writer of the Abstract ought to have ascertained whether that Constitution was assented to. He inferred or fancied that it was, and so was betrayed into error. The truth is, that that Constitution was rejected by 20,431 negative votes, against 14,119 affirmative. The act of Congress was thus nullified, and Wisconsin remained a Territory till May 29, 1848 (see acts of first session of Thirtieth Congress, chap. 50), when it in fact attained to Statehood. As to the admission of other States, there seem to be similar blunders. Indeed, in various points of its make-up the Abstract cannot stand the ordeal of inspection by intelligent men, whether natives or foreigners. It will make them suspect more errors than they detect, and incline them to fear that civil-service reform has not yet completed its perfect work, even in its Washington fountain-head.

—Variously instructive and suggestive is the report on the "Open Competition for Situations as Female Clerk in the Post-office," which took place in London last March. The age of the competing candidates was fixed at from eighteen to twenty years. The salary attached to these female clerkships, those of the lowest class, commences at £65, rising, by £3 annually, to £100; and the incumbents of them are required to resign their appointments on marriage. Promotions to vacancies in the higher classes depend on merit. The hours of attendance are seven daily. At the recent competition the vacancies to be filled were only fourteen, and the competitors for them were 1,162. The subjects examined in were six, namely, Arithmetic, Handwriting, Orthography, English Composition, Geography, and English History, the maximum marks for which were 500 for the first and 300 for each of the rest—the total being 2,000. Handwriting and Spelling were specially tested by Copying and Dictation, respectively. 286 of the candidates failed to qualify in one or more of the obligatory subjects—that is to say, all the subjects but Geography and English History. The marks allotted to the first and the last of the successful candidates were 1,584 and 1,468; those allotted to the first and the last of the unsuccessful candidates, 1,467 and 876. The highest marks allotted were, for Arithmetic, 440, to an unsuccessful candidate; for Handwriting, 278, also to such a candidate; for Orthography, 300, to each of five successful candidates and to each of fifty-four unsuccessful; for English Composition, 240, to an unsuccessful candidate; for Geography, 243, to a successful candidate; and, for English History, 237, to another such candidate. The examination was by no means easy. In English Composition an option was allowed between three subjects; two hours being the time fixed for writing on the one selected. The subjects were: "Relate a Fable, giving its moral from your own experience"; "The Comparative Influence of Home and School Life in the forming of Character"; and "Charles and Mary Lamb." Of these the last was certainly ill chosen, while, as to the second, which is expressed with scant observance of grammatical propriety, few will question that it was much too difficult. The examination here spoken of was superintended by the Civil Service Commissioners; but, in pursuance of a mysterious policy, the public is denied any knowledge of the persons by whom it was actually conducted. Similar examinations, generally two a year, have been held since September, 1881.

—It seems not very generally known to the readers of the daily press that Rear-Admiral Albert H. Markham, whose vessel, the *Camperdown*, annihilated the flag-ship of the British Mediterranean squadron in the recent manœuvres off Tripoli, Syria, was the leader of the advance column of the Polar Expedition of 1875–76, under command of Capt. (Sir George) Nares. The name of no more gallant commander appears in all the annals of Arctic exploration, and the exploits of few travellers have done more to establish a reputation for English pluck and dogged determination than that terrible struggle with the frozen sea which alone retrieved the fortunes of the most elaborately equipped expedition that ever sailed the Northern waters. Markham's "farthest" (83° 20′) has since been eclipsed by the "farthest north" of Lockwood and Brainard (83° 24′, 1882), but this later exploit has in no way diminished respect for an achievement which carried the British standard many miles nearer to the Pole than had been possible before. In the official report addressed to his superior, Markham states: "I feel it impossible for any pen to depict with accuracy, and yet be not accused of exaggeration, the numerous drawbacks that impeded our progress. One point, however, in my opinion, is most definitely settled, and that is, the utter impracticability of reaching the North Pole over the floes in this locality." It was this experience, even more than the outbreak of scurvy, which induced the early return of the expedition, much to the surprise of all England and the disgust of those who had confidently imagined that the Pole had finally been conquered. A popular clamor for court-martial was, through Government influence, quelled by conferring knighthood on the commanding officers. Rear-Admiral Markham is without question one of the first authorities on Arctic exploration, and his opinions on a subject to which he has given the closest study are entitled to the highest consideration. In his work 'A Polar Reconnoissance,' published in 1881, he states his conviction that the Franz-Joseph Land route to the Pole offers greater possibilities than any other—a conclusion in which he is to-day supported by many Arctic "experts," and which had long ago been arrived at by the late Dr. Petermann. It is known to many who have followed recent Arctic developments that Admiral Markham had a longing desire to return to the Polar regions, and it was for some time assumed that he would be associate commander in the Nansen Expedition. Another distinguished member of the same family, Mr. Clements R. Markham—traveller, geographer, and historian—has recently been elected President of the Royal Geographical Society of London.

—Among the great men of classic German literature of the eighteenth century, none, with the possible exception of Klopstock, has been so completely forgotten as Wieland. Yet it is safe to say that in his day none, not even the greatest, exerted a more powerful or wider-reaching influence than he. Not only did his novels and satirical romances, such as 'Agathon,' 'Die Abderiten,' 'Aristipp,' express, in a more popular and striking manner than any other contemporary productions, the rationalistic creed of the time, but his skilful management of the *Teutscher Merkur* and his own frequent contributions to that periodical were by far the most potent single factors towards the creation of an organized public opinion in Germany at the end of the eighteenth century. A curious illustration of this latter point is given by Dr. Richard Fester in his recent monograph, 'Rousseau und die deutsche Geschichtsphilosophie' (Stuttgart: Göschen). Fester makes it perfectly apparent that it was Wieland who fixed Rousseau in the German mind as the advocate of a return to natural primitiveness. It is well known nowadays that this was a decided misrepresentation of Rousseau's views, neglecting as it did the final and most important phase of his thought, and resting exclusively upon the two youthful Dijon prize essays. Yet this falsified and incomplete Rousseau, this imaginary champion of uncultured and unthinking innocence—in short, this Rousseau of Wieland's make—undoubtedly called forth an intenser and more vigorous intellectual reaction than the real and complete Rousseau did. There is hardly a single one among the great German poets and thinkers who, starting from this pseudo-Rousseau standpoint, did not eventually turn against it, each in his own way demonstrating that the future of humanity should be sought in the direction of more highly developed culture rather than in a return to primitive conditions. That Rousseau himself had practically arrived at this self-same conclusion does not take away from the originality of the German movement, nor from the part played in it by Wieland.

—Of late years it has become admitted that the historical method of Tacitus was not so much one of independent research as used to be supposed, but that he was very dependent upon his predecessors for the incidents and the circumstances of his narrative, and that his power lay in the manner and the style of his descriptions rather than in the discovery and setting forth of new truths. If further proof is needed of this belief, it is to be found in M. Philippe Fabia's essay entitled 'Les Sources de Tacite' (Paris: Imprimerie Nationale), which won the Prix Bordin in 1892. Without entering into the details of M. Fabia's arguments, or expressing any opinion upon the truth of the conclusions at which he arrives, we shall merely remark that his contention is that in both the 'Histories' and the 'Annals' Tacitus followed, and followed closely though not slavishly, a principal source. For the 'Histories' that source was the elder Pliny, and for the 'Annals' Clodius. There is, of course, nothing new in these conclusions, for both have already found champions in Germany; but no writer has hitherto gone into the questions so deeply nor treated them so fully. In France and England, indeed, nothing of importance has ever before been written upon the subject. The essay, which is a long one, contains also chapters upon the secondary sources and upon the originality of Tacitus in both his immortal works. It exhibits much study and careful research, and will be indispensable to future investigators, although a question which never, probably, will be answered in such fashion as to convince all the world of scholars.

PIERCE'S LIFE OF SUMNER.—II.

Memoir and Letters of Charles Sumner. By Edward L. Pierce. Vols. III., IV. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1893.

MR. PIERCE is always at his best in his historical passages, and none of them is more com-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

pact and forcible than that which introduces his fourth volume with an account of the compromising temper of the North between the election of Lincoln and his inauguration. This passage of history has been written many times, but not elsewhere with so much detail of personal weakness, cowardice, and imbecility. Some of the best as well as many of the worst were implicated in the general collapse. Sumner stood immovably for the preservation of the Union without compromise. He implored Seward not to make the speech of January 12 which Seward blandly read to him in advance. With Charles Francis Adams he protested so vigorously as to break off the friendship which had been growing for fifteen years.

Although of Whig extraction, Sumner was never taken in the snare of a high tariff; when the Morrill tariff was passed, he opposed several of its more radical provisions, and he was always resolute in his interpretation of the war duties as provisional. Made Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Relations immediately on Lincoln's inauguration, he entered on a course of duty which for ten years was wholly congenial to his taste, and went far to qualify the current criticism on his talent as engrossed by one idea. Generally at variance with Seward on questions touching slavery and reconstruction, it is eloquent for the sobriety of his own temper in dealing with foreign matters and for his disengagement of personal from official matters, that he kept the peace with Seward all those years. With his English friends he did not fare so well. His speech on the *Trent* affair stirred up a vast amount of British indignation, but it went far to reconcile the American people to the surrender of Mason and Slidell. That something sternly practical mingled with Sumner's habitual idealism, was well proved by his relation to this matter. He declared that the Rebel ministers must be given up, at a time when Seward was "elated and jubilant over the capture" and among those approving it were Everett and Cushing, and such distinguished jurists as Joel Parker and Theophilus Parsons. He never for a moment had a different opinion, and for the flimsy grounds adduced by Seward for the surrender he furnished others that involved no humiliation and had the support of international laws, which should not be disobeyed to secure a temporary and unreal advantage. This speech did much to secure for him the confidence of people who had imagined that he was "a mere moralist and reformer." It made him an authority on foreign affairs second to no other until he was degraded from his post. From the *Trent* affair onward his influence upon our relations with England was as pacific as it could be consistently with a decent national self-respect. Mr. Pierce has established this position by exhibiting his humane opposition to letters of marque and reprisal, his treatment of the St. Albans raid, his defeat of the attempt to scale down the neutrality acts in 1866, his opposition to the Retaliation Bill in 1868, and in general by his attitude towards a bumptious anti-English spirit in the Senate. Not less pacific was the speech of April 13, 1869, explaining the action of his committee in rejecting the Johnson-Clarendon Convention. The speech was not a plea for heavy damages, but for such a principle of amity as should actuate a friendly nation in its dealings with another engaged in putting down a pro-slavery rebellion. Like the *Trent* speech, it was "joy of the street, curse of the home" reversed. Well received in America, it put England in a frenzy of astonishment. Mr. Pierce goes over the whole matter carefully, on account of its relation to Sumner's trouble with Grant and Fish a little further on.

This trouble furnishes the most elaborate and painful episode of Mr. Pierce's book. If anywhere he abates something of his judicial temper, it is in his contemptuous estimate of Mr. Fish's ability and performance up to the time of his being made Secretary of State. It is an estimate that reflects severely upon Sumner's great regard for Fish—a regard which intensified a hundred fold the hurt inflicted by Fish's letter of December 30, 1870, to Moran, replying to Motley's of December 7. In that letter Sumner was indicated as "one who uses the words and the assurances of friendship to cover a secret and determined purpose of hostility." Mr. Pierce's caution is not less than usual because he brands this letter and Fish's subsequent treatment of Sumner with the sternest condemnation that he can express. Sumner's great mistake in the San Domingo business, of which Fish's letter to Moran was the most shameful incident, was in not calling on the President, who had called on him to solicit his support for the treaty, and assuring him that he could not support it. It may not be doubted that Grant was entirely confident in his belief that Sumner promised to support the treaty which he afterwards opposed so ardently, and that he was entirely mistaken in his confidence. But for subserviency to the wishes of the President, the treaty would have had few supporters at any time. Fish himself did not care for it, but finally, to humor his chief, pressed Sumner to forego his opposition and offered him the mission to England. Mr. Pierce is more than kind in his acceptance of Fish's apology—that he did not intend the offer for a bribe—as sufficient under the circumstances. Sumner did not yield, and the rejection of the treaty, only in part because of his opposition, was followed the next day by Motley's removal from his post as Minister to England. If the *post hoc* was not a *propter hoc*, the coincidence was remarkable. But to strike at Sumner through his friend was not enough. His relations with Fish continued friendly after Motley's removal and until after the Moran letter. Of course, they could not be friendly after that. His personal relations with Grant had also ceased, and this fact and his breach with Fish were the excuse for removing him from the committee of which he had been a member for twelve years, and chairman for ten. It was the most unkindest cut of all. It hurt much more than Preston Brooks's cane. It struck his weakest part, his self-esteem, which, always abnormally developed, now took on a more portentous bulk, with painful inflammation, and a disturbance of his moral vision in everything that related to Grant. All this reached its climax in his arraignment of Grant as a colossal nepotist and in his support of Greeley in the campaign of 1872. The intensely personal character of Sumner's politics in that year is not to be disguised, and it marks the lamentable injury to his happiness and self-poise wrought by the San Domingo episode.

However valuable the influence of Sumner on our foreign affairs, it was not the most characteristic influence of his Senatorial career. For this we must turn to his anti-slavery polemics for ten years before the war and to his steadfastness in the winter of 1861; next, to his persistent advocacy of emancipation as a proper instrument and only perfect justification of the war; and lastly to his persistency in demanding for the freedmen equal political and civil rights with the white population of the South. He began to urge emancipation upon Lincoln in the spring of 1861; addressing his constituents in the fall of that year, he made the destruction of slavery central to the conflict, and did much to prepare that public sentiment to which Lincoln looked for his support; early in the session of 1861–62 Lincoln replied to Sumner that he was only a month or six weeks in advance of himself; on July 4, 1862, the Senator urged Lincoln to celebrate the day by declaring emancipation, and September 22 came the preliminary proclamation. After that of January 1, 1863, Sumner addressed himself to bringing the action of the Government and the army into harmony with its spirit; to the prevention of slave-catching in the army and the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia; to the suppression of the slave-trade by treaty with Great Britain; and, in general, to meeting slavery, in whichever of its countless shapes it might appear, with ruthless opposition. His relation to the several amendments which gave emancipation constitutional force was the most striking paradox of his career. He was generally indifferent to them and sometimes in opposition. He was consistent here—any constitutional attack on slavery implying its national existence, which he did not admit. Especially obnoxious to him was the provision of the fourteenth amendment bribing the slave States to extend the suffrage to the freedmen with a promise of increased representation. His Civil Rights Bill furnished the only passionate interest of his waning life. He babbled of it with his dying breath. Carried after his death, it was finally adjudged unconstitutional.

The problem of reconstruction engaged him from an early stage of the events that forced it on the public mind. To the assertion, widely current, that Sumner's doctrine of "State-suicide" met with no response, Mr. Pierce replies that it was practically worked out in the extra-constitutional legislation to which we were obliged to resort. Sumner's fight against Lincoln's early scheme of reconstruction was one of the hardest of his life. He developed in it a genius for obstruction that was something new for him and strange, and he accomplished his purpose in the defeat of Lincoln's scheme. How different Lincoln was from Grant is shown by his friendliness to Sumner after the defeat of a measure as dear to him as San Domingo was to Grant. It was a few weeks before his death, and those weeks were marked by special kindness towards the Senator who had opposed him to the bitter end. Sumner's opposition rallied the anti-slavery people to his side, and it is, as Mr. Pierce has written, "to his credit or discredit as a statesman that suffrage irrespective of color or race became fixed and universal in the American system." To make sure of this was the beginning, middle, and end of Sumner's labor and anxiety in the reconstruction times.

Sumner was not favorable to Lincoln's re-election, but Mr. Pierce denies that the movement against him had Sumner's "earnest support and eager instigation," as Hay and Nicolay have written. Yet how miserably imperfect Sumner's appreciation of Lincoln was is shown by his writing to John Bright that "any one of a hundred" could be more easily elected, and by his saying in the same letter, "Mr. Lincoln resembles Louis XVI. more than any other ruler in history." In a collection of contemporary judgments, that would probably have the distinction of being the most utterly absurd. Had Lincoln lived, Sumner would have been his Secretary of State. Under Johnson he had quite another fate: he was soon ar-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

rayed among the most eager of his opponents, resisting at every step his policy of reaction. He was also among the first to favor his impeachment, as usual the rush of his moral purpose sweeping away all technical obstructions as of no account.

Mr. Pierce attempts no general analysis of Sumner's character, but, telling the story of his life with beautiful fidelity alike to him and to the truth, he has given us an admirable impression of the man. This was easier because of Sumner's remarkable simplicity. His character had no elements of subtlety or complexity. He had no concealments or disguises. He wore his heart too much "upon his sleeve, for daws to peck at." Even his vanity was so naïve that those who knew him best accepted it as part of his sincerity—saying exactly what he thought where others might have been more shrewd. Evidently he liked to be liked and loved to be loved, and he had what he desired. Something rhetorical and histrionic in his public speech, and something overbearing in debate, was in striking contrast with the manners of his private life. There was nothing patronizing in his relations to the younger men whom he attracted to his side. His secretaries cherished for him a warm affection. His correspondence, without emasculation, is wonderfully free from the asperity which so often vitiates the mutual regards of public men. Quick to take offence, he seldom nursed his wrath. That his best friends were Longfellow and Theodore Parker, Whittier and Lydia Maria Child, shows that he loved the simplest and the best. There has been much exaggeration of the sumptuousness of his way of living. Hundreds of men in the country have a single picture which could not be bought for all his books and bronzes, paintings and engravings. His taste in the matter of paintings and engravings appears to have been imperfectly developed. He was a man the dealers liked to have approach them. His taste in other things was not always what we should expect from one of the most cultivated statesmen of his time. There was often a fly in the ointment—some foreign substance in his speeches and orations marring their unity and effect. He had not the self-restraint to put aside the show of learning which often made their moral value less than it would otherwise have been.

Mr. Pierce has shown that Sumner was much more than a political anti-slavery reformer; but he was this from first to last with a consistency in remarkable contrast to the stumblings and the haltings, the twistings and turnings of some others. The course of Mr. Pierce's narrative is strewn with the wrecks of political hopes and reputations, where Sumner held his course right on and never wavered for a day or hour. Not many lives are made so entirely of one piece. Mr. Pierce's volumes, with a hundred incidental qualities to instruct and entertain, have their best justification in the impression that they make of a great and good man devoted to one sacred purpose from the beginning to the end of his political life.

MORE FICTION.

The World of Chance. By W. D. Howells. Harper & Bros.

Children of Destiny. By Molly Elliot Seawell. D. Appleton & Co.

The Odd Women. By George Gissing. Macmillan & Co.

Island Nights' Entertainments. By R. L. Stevenson. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Story of a Story, and Other Stories. By Brander Matthews. Harper & Bros.

Stories of a Western Town. By Octave Thanet. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Stickit Minister, and Some Common Men. By S. R. Crockett. Macmillan & Co.

Sally Dows, and Other Stories. By Bret Harte. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Merely Mary Ann. By I. Zangwill. Raphael Tuck & Sons.

Squire Hellman, and Other Stories. By Yuhani Aho. Translated from the Finnish by R. Nisbet Bain. Cassell & Co.

FEW figures are more engaging in fiction than the young man from the country who arrives in the city with no capital except his ideas and virgin enthusiasm, confident that fame awaits him. Whether, to use the sacred phrase, he "comes up to the metropolis" on foot, with blonde locks tossing and his wild harp slung behind him, or by train, with a roll of manuscripts under his arm, the story of his vicissitudes is sure to command interest and sympathy. He attracts the young because they share his courage and assurance of coming out all right; and he touches springs of tenderness in the old because they remember how that fine scorn of disaster once was theirs, and because they foresee some possibilities of his making a false step or two and coming out all wrong.

In choosing such a figure for the hero of 'The World of Chance,' Mr. Howells had, of course, no intention of trading on ready-made sentiment; on the contrary, he spares no conscientious effort to destroy a romantic predilection for his aspiring novelist, Ray, by giving his defects of nature their full value. Mr. Howells does not write about people in order that the reader may, first of all, like them, but that he may understand them and recognize the truth of the delineation, then profit thereby according to his capacity for inference. If it is often impossible to cherish any fondness for those characters in whom the fidelity and subtlety of his representation are indisputable, the fact is uncomplimentary only to our species, not to Mr. Howells. Still, in Ray's case, there seems to be no sufficient reason for depriving us of preconceived affection. A trifle more of sensibility to afflictions not his own, a more frequent generous deflection from the direct line of self-interest, and the value of his character, either as an expression of art or as a lesson in conduct, would not have been diminished. He would be a pleasanter person to know when his youth lies behind.

The adventures of Ray during his first year in New York do not strain credulity; if they show how much in life depends on chance, they also prove how much more depends on character. Life brings a queer assortment of treasure and of dross to our feet; it is the faculty to select and the force to keep and use that make destiny. The episode most interesting for its own sake is that which brings Ray in close contact with the Hughes family. The chapters devoted to these examples of the failure of community life to insure happiness are strong in feeling, and touched with a hopelessness about the practicability of any scheme yet devised for the permanent mitigation of human misery. The sketches of Mr. Hughes and his demented son-in-law, Denton, impress vividly the power of constant contemplation of social injustices and evil to unhinge a very keen intellect and to drive a morbidly emotional man mad. In permitting Mrs. Denton to tell her dying father the comforting lie which the clever, upright sister dares not speak, the author makes one of his nicest distinctions in feminine character. Reckless unveracity is characteristic of the "fool-woman," and, on occasions such as this, justifies her existence. The other episodes describe Ray's struggle to get on and to get in with heartless publishers and editors. Here we have pages of "shop" talk which may be dull reading to the general public, but is saturated with the wisdom of experience. It is, besides, invaluable for convincing any who may doubt that, so long as Mr. Howells remains with us, genuine wit will not become extinct.

The author of 'Children of Destiny' apparently doubts the determinative influence of character for good or ill, or at all events believes it to be subject to *Anankê* assuming the form of a family doom. Her chief figure is Mr. Richard Skelton, a Virginian land and slave-owner, born seventy years ago and fortunately able to enjoy his property without any question of right or righteousness. Skelton is rather an interesting person, of marked individuality, but we cannot let ourselves go with him heartily, because, from sundry hints, we have gathered that, at the moment when we should most wish him to abide with us, he will, in accordance with family precedent, depart for another world. Doubtless there are families that seem to enjoy a prescriptive right to tragedy of one sort or another, but to insinuate its inevitableness at the beginning of a story is to give an impression of inability to complete it without resort to a very common trick of the trade. Miss Seawell is too thoughtful and original a writer to need to eke out her store with paltry conventions of romance, and it is a pity that, having set out to write a tragedy, she should not have contrived something more impressive than a family tendency to early death. If one can forget the impending catastrophe, there is much to enjoy in the delineation of unusual characters and in the pictures of social life. Miss Seawell has probably grasped pretty exactly the kind of splendor which prevailed in the splendid old South, and which has dazzled the eyes of so many enthusiastic and imaginative chroniclers. The penalty of perpetual lotus-eating is intellectual and spiritual death; and when we are invited to consider what the slaveholding aristocracy had not, we are less moved to envy what it had or to exaggerate its magnificence.

Miss Seawell's novel is from every point of view good enough to make it worth while to call attention to her lapses into slovenly English. She is addicted to "did have" for "had" or "had had," and scruples not to employ both "which" and "who" as relatives to the same noun in one sentence. Local usage is probably responsible for such phrases as "telling goodbye" and "liked to have fallen through." These are only a few examples of slips of the pen or inattention to detail in composition sufficiently numerous to disfigure her work.

One of the most encouraging signs of the times is the recognition of the virtues of the "old maid." Unless she is rich, she is not yet accorded any particular social status, but she is no longer an object for contumely and derision, and it is generally conceded that she is not necessarily either an old cat or an old fool. When she gets a novel written in her praise and honor (euphemistically called 'The Odd Women'), she may be said to have cast off the last shred of disability. If half that Mr. Gissing affirms and predicts about them is true, the hope of the future certainly lies in our old maids. Through the intemperance of partisanship he has perhaps put a scourge in the hands

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of the enemies of that class which he wishes to exalt, the self-supporting unmarried women. His examples of marriage go to show that that institution is a failure, and the drift of his conclusions on sexual relations is in favor of the *union libre*. "We told you so," cry the conservators of morals; "freedom for women means license and the sacred hearth gone to the dogs!" Far be it from them to read patiently and to learn that Mr. Gissing points to the voluntary relation between men and women only as the far-off ideal consummation of human striving towards self-knowledge, self-reverence, and self-control. But the time is not yet, and we go so far with the adorers of home and humdrum as to fail to see that its coming is in the line of social progress. The great thing is for society to give the odd women a fighting chance, and to consider with charity those who fall in the fray.

The story in which the 'Odd Women' are thus ably championed is excellent both for construction and for characterization. The novel with a good purpose is too apt to be a very bad novel, and it is a pleasure to testify that Mr. Gissing's is, in spite of and on account of its intensity of purpose, an uncommonly good one.

Satan is presumably still roaming about this planet seeking whom he may devour, and there is no spot so out of the way or unlikely that he can't at least catch an author looking for local color. We should not regret too bitterly his making a meal of Mr. Stevenson, unless that gentleman would promise to desist from writing stories about the heathen, white and tinted, who inhabit the isles of the Pacific. In the volume entitled 'Island Nights' Entertainments,' three very slim tales are, by the assistance of large type, wide margins, and many illustrations, spread over more than two hundred pages. The last two tales deal with the supernatural, and though they may contain elaborate satire upon Kanaka vices and peculiarities, we prefer to class them as specimens of Oceanic folk-lore. By this expedient Mr. Stevenson is relieved from responsibility for their existence, and the learned are made quite free to note a subtle significance, obscured for the vulgar by apparent childishness of motive and limpid, simple expression. "The Beach of Falesá" is, however, a story, and, though not planned in any accurate sense of the word, is very deliberately executed by Mr. Stevenson. The harangues of the noble savage are notoriously tedious, and Mr. Stevenson's narrative style appears to have become infected with that quality through continued pow-wowing with Samoan grandees. Besides, he has seemingly forgotten that his public is not exclusively engaged in the copra traffic, and can therefore not be expected to take the wild interest in the vicissitudes of that industry which doubtless perpetually agitates the Samoan breast. Whatever the reason, the narrative is inconsequent and dull, and the narrator, Mr. Wiltshire, offensively coarse. Could Burns have known Mr. Wiltshire, he would have regarded him as a concrete and direct answer to his prayer for the "giftie" to see ourselves as others see us. The copra-trader's description of himself is a most luminous and just bit of self-analysis: "I'm just a trader; I'm just a common, low, God-damned white man and British subject, the sort you would like to wipe your boots on."

Mr. Matthews's latest volume also owes much of its size to margin and blank spaces. Every excuse for illustration has been seized, but the excuses are comparatively few. It is always unpleasant to comment disparagingly on any work of a man whose work is mostly admirable, but in this volume Mr. Matthews does little more than show how neatly and aptly he can say nothing, or, at best, things little worth the saying. He dedicates, or, as he says, "inscribes," the volume to Mr. Aldrich, "from whom I learnt the trade of story-telling." By the trade he probably means the method by which the best effects in words can be produced; and the joy of conscious perfection in that may have led him to believe that a story need be nothing more than a brilliant exercise in composition. But the masses, learned and illiterate, critical and thoughtless, differ from him, and agree that a story which has no definite point, no continuous interest heightening to the finish, is not a story at all. We do not mean to imply that the stories are without incident, but that the incidents, except that of "Two Letters," are trivial and aimless. Excessive attachment to the form rarely goes along with vigorous idea and vivid imagination, and the devoted stylist frequently arrives at barren artificiality and affectation. Mr. Matthews is still far from this unhappy consummation, but "A Cameo and a Pastel" may compel his admirers to take a somewhat gloomy view of his future.

In striking contrast to these vain and dainty words are 'Stories of a Western Town.' Octave Thanet's style is not noticeably good or bad, and her claim on attention rests upon her faculty for selecting for stories subjects and characters that any one can understand and every one must feel. Her perception of the nearness of tears and laughter in life is very acute, especially when dealing with certain sensitive, reticent spirits, whose worries and cares would present only one aspect to a less keen observer. Her affair is, in fact, with the mind and heart of man, and not with his clothes or his form of speech or his way of eating his dinner. "Tommy and Thomas" is the cleverest of the stories, though it has, too, more of the conventional stuff of fiction than any other. We are all painfully familiar with the ways by which Tommy rose from no condition at all to that of first citizen of the State, and we could more readily forgive his likes and equals their political iniquities if we had any reason to suppose that they were half as good fellows at heart as was the Honorable Thomas Fitzmaurice. Mr. Frost's illustrations of the volume demand a word of praise, especially the drawing in "Tommy's funny picture."

A similar faculty for seizing and reproducing the feeling which gives importance to ordinary character and simple situations is shown in the collection of Scotch stories entitled 'The Stickit Minister.' There are twenty-five stories or sketches in the volume, most of them very short, and almost exclusively given up to the "minister." A favorite trick of politicians is to excoriate the Irish by eulogies of Scotch patience and fortitude under political inequality, if not injustice. Orators ignore, or are really ignorant of, the fact that every parish in Scotland has a perpetual outlet for spleen and discontent in the person of the "minister." The people regard their spiritual counsellor as an object of common property. They "call" him, they pay his generally paltry "stipend," and they own him body and soul. Great outward respect is shown him, and his virtues are probably appreciated in secret, but his personal liberty of thought and action is ruthlessly invaded on all sides, and the parish wit is kept alive at his expense. Any one who can read Scotch dialect will learn from Mr. Crockett just how much fun the people get out of the situation; also the various degrees of death suffered by the "minister" till he "flits."

The scene of Bret Harte's 'Sally Dows' is laid in the South during the period of reconstruction. The old legend of a Northern soldier finding the portrait of a lovely lady next the heart of his dead foe, and of his subsequent quest for the damsel, is furbished into an appearance of novelty. Excepting the remarkable dialect, which is the peculiar property of Mr. Harte's Southerners, there is nothing attributed to Miss Dows which suggests the scion of Virginian aristocracy. She is altogether of the "breezy," indeed cyclonish, Western type—a good-tempered girl with no end of go, and a sparkling central figure for an entertaining story. Another Virginia "lady" figures in "Mrs. Bunker's Conspiracy," known by the dialect. Mr. Harte's "real ladies" are always rather dreadful persons, but Mrs. Fairfax is clothed with exceptional terrors. Mrs. Bunker, who was "no lady," resembles that indescribable entity the more closely of the two. The conspiracy is very well devised, and the reasons given for its collapse are the best imaginable. The two remaining stories were probably printed to make up a volume.

'Merely Mary Ann' is the first number of a series called "The Breezy Library." Breezy is a hard-worked word, and there is no good in contending that it would be improperly used in describing anything in heaven above or on earth beneath. Therefore, let it be accepted as correctly descriptive of a gloomy, indeed sordid and morbid, tale of a gentleman who kissed a chambermaid and the consequences of the deed. In the beginning Mr. Zangwill makes several attempts at humor, but soon gives that up, doubtless feeling his sportiveness to be so very sad that the elastic "breezy" could never be strained to fit. Mr. Zangwill knows the world, and is especially familiar with its shady side and its seamy side, and with those phases which offer interesting and complex problems for elucidation. There is a very large novel-reading public, with ideas and literary taste, that he is well fitted to entertain, yet he abandons it for the public that wants 'Mary Ann.' Perhaps the publisher's bribe, the label "breezy," may have seduced him from the ways of wisdom and common sense to which he may again return.

The Finn is a fortunate person of whom little is known and nothing expected; therefore most people would be sufficiently surprised and pleased by the volume entitled 'Squire Hellman' without the translator's prefatory laudation. The title story is a good sketch of a cantankerous and rude old man, and the situation into which his evil temper forces him is broadly comic. The other sketches can hardly be regarded as fiction, for they are no more than scraps or paragraphs from life literally transcribed. The author has strong feeling and some art, but the work translated is too slight to show the length of his tether or to prove any wide-felt need for the Finn in literature.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773–1783. Vol. XVI., Nos. 1545 to 1600. January, 1893. London: B. F. Stevens.

With a few exceptions, particularly of Nos. 1584 and 1585, all the documents of volume xvi. are of interest and have at least a relatively important bearing upon the continuity of the narrative. Of the fifty-six numbers, eighteen are despatches, generally "most secret," from Lord Stormont to Lord Wey-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

mouth. On several occasions that insistent Ambassador favors his Minister with as many as three lengthy papers dated the same day. In all he tells the same story of pushing his complaints upon Vergennes with constant vigor if not with immediate effect. The polite, able, and equally honorable French Minister of Foreign Affairs seems always to have listened with admirable fortitude to the almost daily repetition of the same reasonable objections, to have admitted with candor what he could not deny, and to have set about actively, as is seen in his frequent despatches, redressing such open violations of treaty as required instant remedy. The main contention of the English Ministry centres, with increasing directness, upon the American privateers and upon the curious condition of Franco-American commerce seemingly tolerated by the French Court. Dunkirk, Saint Malo, and Martinique are the objective points of Stormont's attack; while Hodge, Wickes, and Cunningham are the names most often in dispute, amid the endless assertions and assurances, reassertions and reassurances. Were it possible to read these papers in a wholly unrelated way and without the memory of subsequent disparagements, by their own acts, of the finely drawn arguments here urged by the English, it would be difficult indeed not to sympathize in the main with the course of their diplomatic conduct as manly and unyielding. Stormont certainly, in his letters to Weymouth, appears to better advantage than does Vergennes in the few here given from the latter to Noailles at London. In the light of history, and in the clear atmosphere which surrounds these intensely veracious documents, it becomes no longer a question of principles, but a contest of personalities.

In the first place, Stormont was not an easily deceived man; that he recognized himself at the best to be playing a close game is plain enough. In No. 1557 he writes: "I am convinced they wish to wound, but, weighing every Circumstance as well as I can, I do not think them ready for War, or willing to provoke it, and am persuaded that they will wait at least to see the Fate of this Campaign." It is difficult to understand, and the motive nowhere reveals itself in this volume, why Stormont chose to unbosom his feelings in the way he did to Maurepas. If Vergennes was not then an open friend to the "Insurgents" or to Beaumarchais and his marvellous business concern of Rodrique Hortalez et Cie., the trifling President of the Council of State certainly was. This careless and purposely forgetful Maurepas could not have deceived where the evenness of Vergennes wholly failed. It is probable that Stormont echoed in his heart the sentiment of D'Aranda, "Je cause avec M. de Maurepas, je négocie avec M. de Vergennes." The period covered by this volume ends with August 8, 1777, two months before Burgoyne's defeat and four months before the settlement for which Stormont had so steadily striven, yet which proved so contrary to his anticipations. To the requests and finally to the menaces of the English Ministry, Vergennes had constantly been acquiescing in much the same spirit in which a boy will pay out the string of a kite which is cutting his fingers off; partly because it was the best thing to do, and partly because he must.

To come back to the personal element in this affair, it is also evident that Vergennes understood Stormont. This is seen in one of his despatches (1590) to Noailles, in which he remarks: "He has no moderation except on entering my closet. It is said that he is longing to go to Scotland to build a country-house there with the fruit of his savings; this motive, as you see, well deserves that several hundreds of thousands of men should be shot or perish, and perhaps a greater number be ruined." For discerning "comments" of this sort, Stormont shows no relish; his forte, in his own estimation, was to drive things "home" to Vergennes, and on the whole he did it in a homely and direct fashion, English-wise, and after a while this persistency had its result upon Vergennes. On one occasion, however, Stormont allowed himself a rather wide departure from his diplomatic rectitude. He asserts in No. 1568 that he told Vergennes of news from America to the effect that the "Rebel Emissaries" had said to Congress in substance as follows: "We do not see the French Ministers often, but we frequently see those who are deputed by them—which comes to the same thing; they give us every assurance of friendship and express the strongest desire of our success; they say that we are able to defend ourselves, and wish not to interfere for the present, but they declare they will run every Hazard rather than suffer Great Britain to reduce us to Obedience; and in the meantime, they promise us every secret succour." On the same page he admits that he did not in the least gain this interesting news from American sources. This personally convenient use of language Stormont calls putting his remarks "into Historical Shape." Vergennes was the last person to be hoodwinked in this way, although he could not gainsay the general truths brought out by this sort of indirection. Writing later a little more nervously than usual to Weymouth, Stormont tells of the report that Franklin and Deane have been urging the acceptance of the Treaty of Alliance. The story ran that Sartine, whom Stormont would call Sartines, zealously spoke to Vergennes, who dissuaded him, and "made use of this extrary expression Il n'est pas Tems encore."

But besides these two astute statesmen there was another *dramatis persona*, with whom Stormont, as is evident enough now, felt it necessary to reckon. In the second of two despatches of the same day he records himself as saying to Vergennes: "We sir shall never consider any Articles that relate to *Nations* as applicable to these Rebels any otherwise than as what is called an Argument *a fortiori*" (No. 1568); in the preceding despatch (No. 1567), however, to Weymouth he quotes himself as follows: "I have observed Sir with great Regret, that when I have made Representations to you, they have been attended to for the Moment, and fair Promises made, but some secret invisible influence, has always counteracted my Representations, and rendered your promises without effect." Behind all these things which baffled him, Stormont seems here to have reluctantly hinted at the influence of Franklin, who, almost unrecognized as yet, was silently impressing France by his generous abilities and his charm of manner, never idle, yet never seeming to act. Against this individuality mere diplomacy was growing powerless. Stormont practically admits it all when he exclaims, almost in exasperation, to Vergennes, who urges rather feebly that he has only seen Franklin twice, "Il est Tout excepté un Sot" (No. 1556).

The method of arrangement of this collection still appears to be mysterious. It certainly is not strictly chronological, for in vol. iv. the Burgoyne defeat was well over, and France had made the desired concessions, while here we are, in vol. xvi., back among the intricacies which preceded these events. If it has been the plan of the editors to group documents in such a way as to dispose of definite events or episodes, it is hard to explain the introduction into the midst of the Stormont-Vergennes papers of the two highly interesting numbers 1571 and 1573—the only two papers giving direct news from America. The first is from Brigadier-General Simon Fraser to his kinsman John Robinson, dated "Skeensborough," and relating to his attempt to keep open the line of communication between "Ticonteroga" and Crown Point, and to his investiture of the former place and of Mount Independence. His account is graphic of a sharp action at Huberton, when 2,000 Americans and 850 British met. Fraser was supported by Riedesel, who, after the engagement, started off on his own account, being Fraser's senior officer, towards Skenesborough, making, according to Fraser, "a march rather more rapid than when he moved to my support." No. 1573 is a letter to the Earl of Dartmouth from Col. Philip Skene, full of adulation over the condition of things under Burgoyne, from whose breast "flows every degree of humanity." Skene was one of the picturesque lesser figures of the royal side, and it was he who, it will be remembered, in a spirit of mock humility, signed himself on the parole of honor after Saratoga as "a poor follower of the British Army."

For good reasons the translations are literal rather than idiomatic, but occasional slips need attention, as, "the motives of which you have been informed of" (No. 1578), and "that no captive or capture be allowed to remain nor receive any help" (No. 1581). Neither the technical beauty nor the general purpose of these facsimiles would in any wise suffer if, in the case of the more faded documents, the dimmed lines and words should be lightly restored with a pen before the impression for the final work is taken. Great convenience to scholars, especially to those with senescent eyesight, would be secured by such a restoration of No. 1592, which is a conspicuous instance of the difficulties attending the reading of a too precise reproduction of an obliterated original. It is of interest to note that Nos. 1583, 1584, and 1586 are three of the twelve papers captured on the *Lexington*—three already having been issued in previous volumes.

The Great Barrier Reef of Australia: Its Products and Potentialities. By W. Saville Kent. With a chart, 48 mezzotype plates, 16 chromo plates, and figures in the text. London: W. H. Allen & Co. 1893. 4to, pp. xii, 387.

SINCE the appearance of Dana's magnificent 'Report on the Zoophytes of Wilkes's Exploring Expedition' nothing has been published containing so much new information regarding polyps as the superb volume before us. It contains a popular account of the fauna of the Great Barrier Reef by W. Saville Kent, Commissioner of Fisheries to the Government of West Australia. The report is also interesting to the naturalist from the detailed account, accompanied by colored figures and photographs, of numerous species of corals taken from life. Unfortunately, the colored sketches are not as successful as the photographs. The chromolithographic plates of the fishes, the sea-anemones, the holothurians, the alcyonarians, and echinoderms, as well as of other animals living upon the reef, can hardly be compared for accuracy or for beauty to such illustrations as accompany Dana's 'Zoophytes,' Semper's 'Holothurians of the Philippine Islands,' or some of the colored sketches of tro-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

pical fishes published by the Godeffroy Museum.

Mr. Kent has, nevertheless, done more for those who have never had the good fortune to visit a reef than all the descriptions of former writers. He is not only an excellent naturalist, but also a most skilful photographer. The forty-eight photo-mezzotype plates give us pictures of the Great Barrier Reef of Australia of the greatest beauty. It is difficult to imagine that any illustrations could convey to one who has not seen a coral reef so admirable an idea of its structure and appearance. The greater number of the reefs which have been described are found in districts where the tide has but little rise and fall, so that naturalists have usually limited their accounts of a growing reef to what could be seen through a water-glass, and from a boat floating over the submerged reef. Mr. Kent worked in a region where the tide has, in some cases, a range of eighteen feet, and was thus able to photograph extensive tracts or detailed portions left bare at very low tides. In some cases his camera has even reproduced patches of corals below the surface, so that it becomes an easy matter to imagine these vast fields of corals as they would appear when covered by the rising tide. The great rise and fall of the tides, subjecting parts of the reef to extreme atmospheric influences, naturally explains the existence of extensive tracts of dead corals between the living banks and high-water mark.

As Fish Commissioner, our author naturally devotes a good part of his volume to the practical side of his subject. He has interesting chapters on the pearl and the oyster-fisheries, and deals also in a very interesting manner with the holothurian fishery, which is the most important of the Queensland marine industries, yielding about £23,000 a year. The bêche-de-mer are collected by hand at low water and are prepared entirely for the Chinese market. As their food consists mainly of foraminiferal sand, they can hardly be called succulent. As soon as collected the holothurians are boiled for a short time, split open, gutted and smoked, and are shipped when dry and crisp. To a European they are not attractive, looking like so many charred sausages; as eaten in Japan, cut up in small slices and thoroughly disguised by the sauce in which they are served, they become nearly as palatable as a piece of cartilage properly seasoned.

While we owe to Mr. Kent so valuable an account of the appearance of the Great Barrier Reef, he has added comparatively little to the description given by Jukes, between 1842 and 1846, so far as it relates to the general theory of the formation of coral reefs. The discussion by Mr. Kent of the coral-reef theory is limited to a reproduction of its essential points as given by Darwin, to a short statement of its acceptance by Dana, and further to the practical adoption of Bonney's objections to the attacks on the Darwinian reef theory by Murray and others. Even granting that subsidence has been in many districts the principal factor in the formation of coral reefs, it by no means follows that subsidence is the only explanation for the formation of coral reefs in an equal number of other districts. Many of those who oppose the Darwinian theory merely state that it is not sufficient to explain the simultaneous existence of fringing reefs, of barrier reefs, and of atolls in certain areas, and they look for simpler natural causes to explain their growth. It is no answer to their arguments to call the atolls of those regions pseudo-atolls, or to exclude them altogether, as is frequently done, from the discussion.

The bases for the growth of corals may as well have been formed by elevation as by subsidence; there is no greater improbability in the one than in the other theory. In fact, many of the observations made by Mr. Kent fully support the objections to the theory of subsidence as explaining the formation of all coral reefs; and were he more familiar with the recent literature on the subject, he would have learned that the coral-reef theory is not quite as simple as he gives his readers to understand. It is becoming more and more apparent that nothing short of a renewed study of the elevated reefs of some favorable locality, coupled with borings carried to great depths through an atoll in a region of subsidence as well as through the outer edge of a barrier reef, will once for all settle questions which are now answered by more or less lucky guesses.

Mr. Kent looks for the conditions of subsidence which have made the formation of the Great Barrier Reef possible in the former undoubted connection of Australia with Tasmania and New Guinea; and if that is not satisfactory, he is quite ready to call upon a still greater subsidence of the Australian Continent as shown by its presumed connection with New Zealand. If, as is probable, and as Mr. Kent suggests, the Great Barrier Reef existed as a narrow fringing reef in the late Tertiary, there has elapsed more than ample time also for its transformation into the Great Barrier Reef of to-day from other causes than those called upon by him. The Great Barrier Reef has entirely obliterated the Australian coast-shelf itself, and it may have found upon that all the conditions of depth necessary for the vigorous growth, both vertically and laterally, of the original insignificant fringing reef of the northeastern coast of Australia.

The Government of Queensland is to be congratulated upon having placed so competent a naturalist as Mr. Kent in charge of the exploration of the Great Barrier Reef, and also upon having published so valuable a contribution to marine zoölogy. Nothing would do more for the practical objects which the Government has in view than the establishment in Torres Strait of the Biological Station suggested by Mr. Kent. The problems which the fisherman wishes to have solved can be attacked by naturalists only when working continuously at a spot so admirably located for all marine investigations as Thursday Island, and within easy reach of the rich fauna of the Great Barrier Reef.

We may state for the benefit of instructors and others that twelve of the characteristic reef views have been enlarged for use as illustrations, and are to be obtained separately from the publishers. Lantern slides of any of the photographs can also be purchased.

Japan As We Saw It. By M. Bickersteth. With a Preface by the Bishop of Exeter. Illustrated. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. xvi, 354.

THIS is a pleasing account of a twenty weeks' trip over the beaten tracks of travel in Japan in the autumn of 1891. Written by an Englishwoman, the daughter of one bishop and the sister of another, it recounts, in diary fashion, but with a smooth and quiet straightforwardness of style, all the details of the journey, from the scenery of the St. Lawrence at one end to the chimes of Exeter Cathedral ringing a welcome home at the other. But the title of the volume should have been '[The Church of England Mission in] Japan As We Saw it.' This was the object of the tour, and this is the scheme of the book. Incidentally much else is noted down, but scarcely anything that is not found already in other books of travel. Of Christian missions in general there is a studious effort, once in a while unsuccessful, to see nothing and to say nothing. Naturally the writer's peculiar point of view affects all her observations. The Japanese are regularly termed "heathen"—country, people, institutions, and religion. This narrowness often results in statements deliciously ridiculous in their simple-mindedness; *e. g.*, "We could see with our own eyes what my brother called 'the Christian look' in the faces of those who had been reached by the Mission. We could note the effects of long, unbroken heathenism on the thousands who, of necessity, were left untouched." Apparently the "Nonconformist" American missions do not succeed in producing this "Christian look."

The writer's cast of mind has prevented her, moreover, from doing justice to some topics very germane to her chosen subject. For instance, there is scant mention of the work and personality of Archdeacon Shaw, who is one of the truest Christians and noblest workers in that country—probably the most popular missionary (alike with Japanese and foreigners) in Japan to-day, if we except Dr. Hepburn (now absent) of the Presbyterian Mission, and possibly Dr. Verbeck of the Dutch Reformed Mission. The author's brother, "the Bishop in Japan," would have a very different showing to make for his jurisdiction if he had not Archdeacon Shaw as his viceroy in Tokio. But, of course, his sister could not be expected to see this in a twenty weeks' tour under the guidance of "my brother, the Bishop in Japan." However, everybody who has ever lived in Japan knows what a sterling work the Archdeacon has accomplished, even if his bishop's sister does not.

Joseph Bonaparte en Amérique, 1815-1832. Par Georges Bertin. Accompagné d'un Portrait. Paris: Librairie de la *Nouvelle Revue*. 1893. 8vo, pp. 423.

M. BERTIN traces his subject from Joseph Bonaparte's arrival in this country, through his daily life, his various peregrinations, his establishment at Bordentown, his correspondence with relatives and friends—making a very minute study of a man and a career really of little importance or interest. Joseph Bonaparte fills a small place in the long roll of distinguished foreigners who have made this country a temporary place of refuge, but, coming as he did just on the fall of Napoleon, and representing the family by right of seniority, he naturally attracted a good deal of attention and drew around him many of his countrymen. He shared the belief, then current abroad, that the ownership of a large body of land would be serviceable; indeed, there was some rumor that he intended bringing together all the Frenchmen loyal to his famous brother, and in some way rescuing him from St. Helena and restoring him to power in Europe. At all events, he bought from Le Ray de Chaumont—an agent for Mme. de Staël, who was one of the large number of French people owning land in this country—a vast body of land on Black River in Northern New York, said to contain one hundred and fifty thousand acres. There he gave small farms to a few French settlers, mostly old soldiers in exile, but finally sold

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED.

the remainder to John Lafarge of New York for $80,000, about half its cost. Then, upon looking over the country, he bought at Bordentown, N. J., a farm of more than eighteen hundred acres, at a cost of $106,000, and spent a very large sum, said to be $150,000, in building and laying out the grounds. He brought over from Europe many valuable pictures and much fine furniture, relics of his successive thrones in Naples and Madrid, and, what with occasional visits from his daughters and a large family of French companions and dependents, he maintained a degree of state then quite unknown in this country. Finally, on the death of the Duke of Reichstadt, Napoleon's son, once King of Rome, he returned to Europe to be the head of the family, and to maintain a system of intrigue that revealed, if need were, his utter incapacity to represent the name once made famous by his younger and greater brother. He sold his old masters in London and Paris for more than $130,000—a large sum for those days, leaving only those sold in Philadelphia in 1845, which have supplied so many doubtful pictures "from the gallery of Joseph Bonaparte." He had a house full of fine furniture of the Empire, bronzes, candelabras, decorations from the Luxembourg Palace, portraits and busts of the family, pictures of Napoleon's great battles, pieces of Sèvres of great value, a gallery of paintings, and a library of 8,000 volumes, many of which were sold to meet his lavish outlay, for he lived and entertained on a generous scale. Among his visitors were Regnault de St.-Jean-d'Angely, Réal, Grouchy, Clausel, Bernard, Lakanal, Vandamme, Hulin, the Lallemands (one of these married the niece of Stephen Girard, the other planned a settlement of old French soldiers in Texas), and a host of others, French, Italian, and American, who paid their respects to him. Among his American friends were the leading men of Philadelphia, and he testified his appreciation by the characteristic bequest to Dr. Chapman, a noted wit and successful practitioner and teacher of medicine in Philadelphia, of a copy of Voltaire's works, and to others of portraits and statuettes of the great Napoleon and others of the family. To Mr. C. J. Ingersoll he gave a good deal of material relating to France for his 'History of the War of 1812,' and to Dr. Lieber he supplied details for an article in the 'Encyclopædia Americana,' while he inspired many articles in Robert Walsh's *United States Gazette* and in the *Courrier des États-Unis*. All of these and much else M. Bertin has unearthed with infinite pains, and found a suitable place for them in his book, which has a value as a picture of life in this country during the fifteen years of Joseph Bonaparte's secure and inglorious self-imposed exile.

There are full chapter summaries and an index of names.

La Femme aux États-Unis. By C. de Varigny. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

ALTHOUGH every one would admit the attractiveness and the importance of the subject of this book, no one will be likely after reading it to feel inclined to pass it on to a friend or to go back to it for a second or a third perusal. The impression it first leaves, in fact, is that it is more remarkable for its faults than for its merits. The generalizations are both tedious and flippant, forced and superficial. Cases of breach of promise are detailed in the most sensational style of French journalism; an account of the life of Jay Gould is followed by another, equally irrelevant, of the divorced American wife of Jerome Bonaparte, spending her days in Florence and her wit in railing at her countrywomen; while the American public-school system is gravely expounded from two sources of information, the College of Punahou, near Honolulu in Hawaii, and Mr. Richard Malcolm Johnston's 'Oddities of Southern Life.'

Yet, notwithstanding their various absurdities, there is reason to be found in these pages why the young American woman and her friends should pause and reflect. In them she is to be seen pretty much as she must appear to any observant foreigner who brings over with him some letters ("good" ones or otherwise), a keen eye for the superficial aspects of society, and an untarnished faith in the newspapers as true and infallible exponents of national manners and customs. That such an observer should suppose "flirtation" to be the fundamental feminine and even national institution it is here described as being, she has only to thank her own behavior in public—at watering-places, in the streets, at entertainments, and even while she is making foreign "tours." If she is supposed, when she marries on small means, to be driven to the sad alternative of life in a boarding-house or hotel, or of domestic drudgery because of the dearth of service at reasonable remuneration, the supposition comes near enough the mark to cause us to blush for its truth. That a foreigner should be able to understand either our apparently supine helplessness before the "incapable German and recalcitrant Irishwoman," or the willingness of young couples to put up with a life in which they "must already have lost, together with respect for the domestic fireside, the notion of the refinements of married life and the duties of paternity," is too much for even our aggressive self-esteem to expect.

Since they have had no share in making the laws by which they may be summoned, tried, and convicted, American women can hardly be held responsible in the same degree for the figure they cut in the divorce courts. That they appear there in numbers sufficient to justify the allotment of a goodly portion of a book about them to this phase of their collective careers, is an undeniable fact, however bewildering its bearings to a Frenchman who has the racial respect for "the family." That such an observer should feel himself confused in presence of the chaos of differing divorce laws in different States is not to be wondered at. Still less surprising is it to find him having a quiet fling at the boasted superiority of institutions under which prostitution has in such brief time reached such large proportions. He touches lightly on this theme, however, and shows himself at all points a convinced believer in the purity and native integrity of the American girl, notwithstanding the paradoxes of her conduct. Finally, in spite of M. de Varigny's elaborate admiration for the women of the United States, it is impossible to lay aside his book without being reminded afresh that they belong to a nation which, if it has fewer vices to conceal, has more social vulgarities to expose to public view, than any other civilized nation in the world.

A Leap in the Dark; or, Our New Constitution. By A. V. Dicey, Q.C., etc. London: John Murray. 1893.

IT must not be taken as any want of respect to Prof. Dicey, or any failure to appreciate his character and his writings, if we do not devote a lengthened notice to this his latest tract. It is such a purely trenchant onslaught on the Home-Rule idea and upon the Home-Rule Bill, paragraph by paragraph, that any minute review would be too polemical for our columns. Instead of 'A Leap in the Dark' it had better been styled 'To Destruction by Daylight'; for certainly if one-half of Prof. Dicey's contentions are well founded, Mr. Gladstone, Mr. Morley, Mr. Bryce, and Earl Spencer are working naught but the destruction of the British Empire. The Constitution of the United Kingdom at present, as Prof. Dicey so clearly points out, is each for all and all for each. A representative from Kerry has as much right and duty to guard and decide the interests of a Surrey hamlet concerning a new pump as has the Surrey representative to question the length to which a Kerry constable is to grow his beard. There is something sublime in the idea, but it works out to strange conclusions. For while the two or three gentlemen who know anything concerning the pump or the beard are fighting out their differences, 667 other gentlemen, the chosen of the land, are, if not away paired, kicking their heels on the terrace, or in the corridors or libraries, and will decide the matter one way or the other, not according to the merits, of which they can know nothing, but according to party ties or personal friendships. The maintenance of the system may be necessary to the greatness of Britain—Prof. Dicey thinks it is. The other English-speaking peoples over the globe work upon different lines, and may be excused from recognizing the certainty of ruin in any change. Moreover, there does appear some want of proportion about the present arrangement; for while 670 gentlemen are devoting their attention each to all and all to each within their own borders, they are leaving practically in the hands of permanent officials, and unattended to, the lives and interests of millions under their sway—of an empire such as was not dreamt of by Alexander or Augustus. As we read in this volume and pondered on the author's sinister anticipations as to the evils likely to arise under home rule, we found ourselves constantly noting on the margin, "How now?"—to what extent are not such anticipations certainties under the present system?

This book is the quintessence and boiling down of the speeches being now, day after day and week after week, delivered by Unionist orators in the House of Commons. Rather it is the stock from which the arguments and method of their speeches are derived, and in brilliancy and concentrated force the author far surpasses all but the ablest of them. What will be the outcome of the present sustained argument it is impossible to say. Never did a proposition put forward by a responsible Ministry meet with anything approaching to such vigorous and patently sincere opposition as the Home-Rule Bill. If Mr. Gladstone and his party are discredited, if the British people again determinedly set themselves to the pacification of Ireland and its amalgamation in thought and feeling with the rest of the United Kingdom on the lines of the present Constitution, it will to no inconsiderable degree be attributable to the publication of works such as Mr. Dicey's.

Hypnotism, Mesmerism, and the New Witchcraft. By Ernest Hart, M.D., etc. 12mo, pp. vi, 182. D. Appleton & Co. 1893.

THIS book is made up of rather popular papers from the *Nineteenth Century* and the *British Medical Journal*. They served a very good purpose as articles, but they have no place in book form. They aim to expose the abuses

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

which have arisen in many quarters about the phenomena of hypnotism. All these abuses should be exposed, although such an exposure edifies only those already convinced. What medium is ever led to confess that he is a fraud? No doubt such papers are wholesome, but a book should have a more serious purpose than that of exposing some humbug, especially when all the humbugs exposed are known to all good people already to be humbugs.

Dr. Hart's book also associates "Hypnotism and Humbug" in such a way that those not "well up" in the former might conclude that it is all humbug. This is the more to be feared since such is the opinion entertained by those who have not looked into the subject, especially medical men. Dr. Hart does not believe this—on the contrary, he recognizes the facts of hypnotism; but in our opinion he does not discriminate well even among the humbugs which he exposes. It is certainly unfair, for example, to the British Society for Psychical Research to bring it in for indiscriminate reproach along with the impostors of Luys's clinique, the clairvoyants of the shady side of Paris, and the soothsayers of the Orient. Dr. Hart certainly deserves credit for improving his time while in Paris (by official invitation to the Pasteur celebration, as we are told twice, for no adequate reason) by investigating Dr. Luys and Col. de Rochas; but it has been an open secret among competent observers for some time that these men could not stand investigation. To refute the claim that "sensibility may be transferred to inanimate objects" and that "layers of air may be sensitivized" is to advertise shams, no matter what "great institution in Paris" may harbor such charlatans. Dr. Hart fills out his book by printing twice in full a letter from Dr. Olivier which says as much—*i. e.*, "a question which I ought to say has been decided by the vast majority of the French scientific public in a sense absolutely opposed to the results proclaimed by MM. Luys and de Rochas. . . . The opinion of these two experimenters finds no support in the French scientific world" (p. 137, and again p. 182).

As far as Dr. Hart expresses opinions about hypnotism, he seems to accept the view of the Paris school without much independence. He repeats himself, for example, in two sections (pp. 69 and 153), declaring, on authority, the "therapeutic uselessness" of hypnotism; and many other instances might be cited of unsupported opinions and of citations "in the lump." But the book is not worth more space. If the reader wants a good one on the subject, let him read Möll's 'Hypnotism,' in the "Contemporary Science Series."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bell, Rev. C. D. Poems Old and New. London: Edwin Arnold.
Chotteau, Léon. Mes Campagnes aux Etats-Unis et en France. 1878–1885. Paris: E. Dentu; New York: J. W. Bouton.
Cowan, Rev. J. F. Endeavor Doin's down to the Corners. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Craik, Henry. Selections from Swift. Vol. II. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Dicey, Prof. A. V. A Leap in the Dark; or, Our New Constitution. London: John Murray.
Dyer, J. F. T. The Ghost World. London: Ward & Downey; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.50.
Emerson, P. H. On English Lagoons. London: David Nutt.
Emerson, P. H. Signor Lippo. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.
From the Highways of Life. Columbus Press.
Geddes, Prof. Patrick. Chapters in Modern Botany. [*University Extension Manuals.*] Scribners. $1.25.
Greene, Nanci L. Nance: A Story of Kentucky Feuds. Chicago: F. T. Neely. 50 cents.
Howells, W. D. The World of Chance. Harpers. 60 cents.
Hume, Fergus. The Chinese Jar: A Mystery. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.
Hutchinson, G. W. C. Some Hints on Learning to Draw. Macmillan. $2.25.
Hutton, Laurence. Edwin Booth. Harpers. 50 cents.
Huxley, T. H. Evolution and Ethics. [Romanes Lecture, 1893.] Macmillan. 60 cents.
Jackson, S. Commercial Arithmetic. Macmillan. $1.10.
Janvier, T. A. The Aztec Treasure-House. Harpers. 75 cents.
Kirk, Rev. Robert. The Secret Commonwealth of Elves, Fauns and Fairies. London: David Nutt.
Knox, T. W. *The Talking Handkerchief, and Other Stories.* St. Paul: Price-McGill Co.
Lawrence, W. M., and Blackman, O. The Riverside Song Book. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 30 cents.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XXXV. Mac—Mal. Macmillan. $3.75.
O'Neill, John. The Night of the Gods: An Inquiry into Cosmic and Cosmogonic Mythology and Symbolism. Vol. I. London: Bernard Quaritch.
Paysagistes Contemporains, Recueil de 101 Paysages publié en deux fasicules. Paris: Librairie de *l'Art*.
Potter, B. W. The Road and the Roadside. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Sayle, Charles. Musa Consolatrix. London: David Nutt.
Seely, Howard. A Border Leander. Appletons.
Street, G. S. Miniatures and Moods. London: David Nutt.
Tuck, Rev. Robert. Revelation by Character. W. B. Ketcham. $2.

BUTTERFLIES.

JUST PUBLISHED.

Brief Guide to the Commoner Butterflies.

By SAMUEL H. SCUDDER. 12mo, $1.25.

The Life of a Butterfly.

A Chapter in Natural History for the General Reader.

By SAMUEL H. SCUDDER. 16mo, $1.00.

HENRY HOLT & CO., N. Y.

A
GRAND
COMBINATION.

YALE MIXTURE

FOR THE PIPE.

A Delightful Blend of St James Parish, Louisiana, Perique, Genuine Imported Turkish, Extra Bright Plug Cut, Extra Bright Long Cut, and Marburg Bros.' Celebrated Brand "Pickings."

Marburg Bros.

HATCHARDS.

This is the favorite BOOKSTORE, and for 100 years the resort of the smartest people in London. It is visited and patronized by all who love books. London is the great market for books, and all the best as well as the cheapest editions can be had by writing to us. Special collections formed, and fuller information supplied than from any other house. Books both old and new, and relating to any subject, can readily be supplied at very moderate prices.

Agents for Clubs, Libraries, and all private Collectors.

187 PICCADILLY, LONDON, W.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.

The Medical Department of the Johns Hopkins University will open October 2, 1893. Circulars and further information can be obtained on application to the Registrar of the University, Baltimore, Maryland.

Letters of Credit. We buy and sell bills of exchange on and make Cable Transfers of money to Europe, Australia, and the West Indies; also make collections and issue Commercial and Travellers' Credits, available in all parts of the world.

Brown Brothers & Co., Bankers,
NO. 59 WALL STREET, NEW YORK.

Delicious Drink.

Horsford's Acid Phosphate

with water and sugar only, makes a delicious, healthful, and invigorating drink.

Allays the thirst, aids digestion, and relieves the lassitude so common in midsummer.

Dr. M. H. Henry, New York, says: "When completely tired out by prolonged wakefulness and overwork, it is of the greatest value to me. As a beverage it possesses charms beyond anything I know of in the form of medicine."

Descriptive Pamphlet free.

Rumford Chemical Works, Providence, R. I.

Beware of Substitutes and Imitations.

CROSBY'S VITALIZED PHOSPHITES.

From the nerve-feeding principle of the ox brain and wheat germ.

Is an essential Food to the Brain and Nerves. It contains nothing injurious. Formula on each label.

For relief of brain fatigue, nervous debility, dyspepsia, sleeplessness, and night sweats, it is invaluable.

For thirty years used by thousands of brain-workers with such success as a *curative* that now many take it before great mental effort as a *preventive* of mental and physical exhaustion.

This vital nutriment supplies elements to brain and nerves, the loss of which is often the only cause of disease.

Indorsed by leading physicians. Descriptive pamphlet free.
Druggists, or by mail, $1. Prepared only by the
Accept no substitute.
Each label has our signature.

F. Crosby Co.,
56 West 25th St., New York.

FRENCH BOOKS. Readers of French desiring good literature will take pleasure in reading our ROMANS CHOISIS SERIES. 60 cents vol., and CONTES CHOISIS SERIES, 25 cents vol. Each a masterpiece and by a well-known author. List sent on application.

WILLIAM R. JENKINS,
851 and 853 Sixth Avenue (48th St.), New York.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED